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THE SCHOOLS CARRY ON

The Proceedings of the Twenty-Sixth
Annual Meeting of the National Association
of Secondary-School Principals of
The National Education Association

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1942

February 21 to 24, 1942

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Topics Discussed

How the Schools Should Carry On
Providing Educational Leadership for the Needs of Youth
Planning the Curriculum for the Thirteenth and Fourteenth
School Years

How the Association Carries On
Education for Youth in These Times

Today's Program for Pupil Growth and Development in
the Junior High School



THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
Paul E. Elicker, Executive
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1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
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1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

All Secondary Schools

Are you using the new SECONDARY-SCHOOL RECORD and PERSONALITY RECORD form for reporting student records to other secondary schools, to colleges, and to inquiring employers of secondary-school students?

This two page record form (8½"x11") was arranged by a national committee sponsored by:

American Council on Education
American Association of Collegiate Registrars
Progressive Education Association
National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the
National Education Association
Regional Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools

What some colleges and organizations have written

Extracts from letters:

We have examined the form proposed for transferring credit from secondary schools to colleges. We believe that this is a very important and constructive piece of work. Certainly the problems of high school officials would be greatly simplified if all higher institutions in the United States adopted this form.—Irvin Hoff, Registrar, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

We have been interested to look over the blank. Any movement which would make national use of one type of blank possible certainly meets with my approval. So far as I can see the blank you have devised has on it all the information we wish.—Anne Wellington, Board of Admission, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Massachusetts.

President Valentine of this University, to whom you sent a copy of your form letter of November first, regarding uniform blanks for transfer of credentials, has for-

warded the material to me. If I understand correctly the variations which you could permit, I think we can substantially adopt this uniform blank the next time we have our school record forms reprinted. At any rate, we can use the personality record form just as you print it, and get rid of an old-fashioned form which we made-up here years ago.—Lester O. Wilder, Director of Admission, The University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.

I am glad to inform you that the report of our Committee on the Uniform College Entrance Blanks was unanimously approved and adopted by the Middle States Association at its meeting on November 21st. In other words, the Middle States Association has given its full approval to the transfer blank.—Karl G. Miller, Secretary of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

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PAUL E. ELICKER, *Executive Secretary*

TWENTY-SIXTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 21, 1942, 6:15 p. m., Colonial Room, St. Francis Hotel

Topic: THE SCHOOLS SHOULD CARRY ON

The Annual Convention banquet of the Association was held on the above date with more than two hundred fifty persons present. Following a turkey dinner, Dr. John E. Wellwood, President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and Principal of The Central High School of Flint, Michigan, introduced the guests at the speakers' table. These were Robert R. Chase, Principal of Balboa High School; Dr. Aubrey A. Douglas, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Chief of Division of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Sacramento; Dr. Francis L. Bacon, Chairman of Planning Committee, Principal Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois; Mr. Earle E. Crawford, President Association of California Secondary Schools, Principal of Glenn County Union High School, Willows, California; Mrs. F. L. Bacon; Dr. Jesse B. Davis, Dean, School of Education, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts; Mrs. Charles P. Taft; Mrs. Mertle Dahl, President National Education Association, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Mrs. Paul E. Elicker; Harry G. Hansell, President, San Francisco Secondary Principals' Association, Secretary, Association of California Secondary-School Principals; Mrs. J. B. Davis; Mr. Virgil M. Hardin, First Vice President, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Springfield, Missouri; and Dr. Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

The president then introduced the speakers of the evening.

How the Schools Should Carry On

CHARLES P. TAFT

Assistant Director, Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services

A LITTLE OVER A YEAR AGO in his Phi Beta Kappa address to the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Walter Lippmann framed an indictment of our modern educational system. If you haven't read the address you should do so. Here is a summary of his attack:

That during the past forty or fifty years those who are responsible for education have progressively removed from the curriculum of studies the western culture which produced the modern democratic state;

That schools and colleges have, therefore, been sending out into the world men who no longer understand the creative principle of the society in which they must live; . . .

That the prevailing education is destined, if it continues, to destroy western civilization, and is in fact destroying it;

And that, therefore, what is now required in the modern educational system is not the expansion of its facilities or the specific reform of its curriculum and administration, but a thorough reconsideration of its underlying assumptions and of its purposes.

Lippman supports that indictment by pointing out that:

Modern education, however, is based on a denial that it is necessary, or useful, or desirable for the schools and colleges to continue to transmit from generation to generation the religious and classical culture of the western world. . . . Modern education rejects and excludes from the curriculum of necessary studies the whole religious tradition of the west. It abandons and neglects as no longer necessary the study of the whole classical heritage of the great works of great men."

That address furnishes my jumping off place tonight in trying to suggest how the schools should carry on. That discarding of the basis of western civilization from our school curriculums has led to utter failure in this last generation in the sound interpretation and presentation of recent and current history. Have you stopped to think what a reflection it is upon the work you have done for your pupils that the army should find it necessary to set up a fairly complete history school to tell these fine young men between twenty-one and twenty-eight what the war is about? It is not only a matter of ignorance of the facts of world history in the last thirty years or more, but of actual false information for which there has been impressive authority, seldom if ever challenged by the teachers of our secondary schools and colleges. We were not prepared, materially speaking, on December 7, but at least we were working on it, and have made great progress since. But intellectually speaking we are not prepared now, and I don't see much evidence of vigorous steps to correct that deficiency. And I trace the failure to the want of exactly the ballast which Lippmann says modern education has thrown overboard.

HISTORY POORLY TAUGHT

I want to be specific in my criticism, and I shall take two fields of history, that of politics and that of ideas.

Think back to the ideas of history, 1914-1931, that have been current in these United States in the last ten years. If they were not taught in school or by professors outside of school, how did they become current? And if the schools were not responsible for their invention and popularization what did they do to correct them? Yes, I recognize that secondary schools don't appear to be quite as much in this picture as colleges and their professors. But are you going to say that the overwhelming majority who do not go to college are to be given no sound instruction in current world history and past American history? No this is your responsibility.

What are these 1914-1931 ideas?

Well, one is that all war is futile. That interpretation of history is responsible for the conclusion that since war is evil also, we should never go to war.

That is pretty bad history. The defeat of France in June 1940 was not futile, whatever else it was. Neither was the liquidation of Czechoslovakia or Poland. Our own Revolutionary and Civil Wars were hardly futile. Even the radical historians agree that the Civil War meant the transfer of power from southern planters to northern industrialists. How can even the most sentimental woman who has gone through the secondary school believe that war is futile—if you have done your job? But many did and perhaps still do.

Another historical view widely held was that we were tricked into the last war by a combination of munitions makers, bankers, and French, Belgian, and British propaganda.

I lived through those days and I've read most of the secret history disclosed since that time and I deny the fact. The Germans spent \$35,000,000 in propaganda here and presented their viewpoint. We just didn't agree with it. It is claimed the British were devilishly clever, but the facts now known about their administration of the last war from London don't bear that out. The munitions makers and J. P. Morgan were never names to conjure with, politically speaking, and their profits were sure to be limited if we got into the war, and were so limited or wiped out altogether.

We were fighting for ideals; the claim of trickery is either a cynical denial of any ideals, or a complete pessimism about any solution of the European problem. We won't concede either conclusion.

The Treaty of Versailles is a favorite whipping boy. I have recently read Birdsall's careful review of its negotiation and history and it is hard to understand how a nation could come to accept such wild statements as many publicists have made about it.

Certainly the treaty had its faults. We had not known of the secret agreements during the war. We failed before coming in, or during the war, to insist upon certain principles for the peace. The reparations were impossible. The Polish corridor was a certain source of trouble. But some compromises were inevitable, and the worst mistakes in the long run came from what we all believed in, recognition of national instead of economic boundary lines.

The American people never repudiated the treaty. Its ratification was defeated truly by a small band of willful men, who represented in population less than a quarter of the people. And if its provision against the fortification of the Rhineland had been enforced by France and Britain in 1936, this war would not have come when it did.

The futility of the First World War and the failure since are to be explained in part by the failure of our own nation in 1920; we just quit, or permitted a small minority to make us quit, when our participation

could well have saved us from this mess and made a start toward the dream of centuries. The failure is to be explained in the other part because France and England at a later date, when we did have the leadership, from 1931 to 1936, failed in their part of the world to stand up to the true necessities of the world situation.

How much of that, with all the flesh and blood that has to be put on the bare bones, could a student learn in your schools? Little enough, I venture, and for those who go only through the first eight grades, it looks pretty hopeless—unless you really do what Lippmann suggests, thoroughly reconsider your underlying assumptions and purposes.

THE NEED FOR AN INTELLIGENT EXAMINATION OF THE FACTS OF HISTORY

We are in a world in which the leaders of a part of it deny the validity of any intelligent examination of the facts of history, but start from ideas and color history to fit. It is indeed an ideological war we are engaged in, and for that our educational system has given us little preparation.

It is democracy against totalitarianism. We have been given a pretty good blueprint of the Nazi, and the Black Dragon society on the other side of the globe, and we don't like them. That is a good, perhaps an essential beginning, but one would think we needed to have some pretty clear ideas about the democracy we defend. We can hate the rule of force, the empire of cruelty, and that hate can provide a good deal of motive power, especially at home. But it won't win the war by itself—there is plenty of hate in Germany and Japan.

Neither will we really win this war while we talk about "defending" democracy. Democracy in this country of ours has been a dream of the future, not just for us but for the world, something to propagate, not to hide under a basket or behind trenches. What is it we are offering to South America, to the Far East, to Europe and Africa? We had better learn how to describe this something that lives in us Americans, this sap that rises in our veins from the ancestors that died to achieve it or suffered and struggled to reach its home.

ELEMENTS OF DEMOCRACY

It isn't just the form of government. The Constitution is a great achievement of political sagacity, but our reverence for it is really an expression of our conviction that there is a fundamental law of right upon which we can count, all the sneering cynics and vicious powerful Hitlers to the contrary notwithstanding. A basis of our democratic faith from the beginning has been our conviction that it was possible to govern our common living by stable ethics. That conviction has been associated with Christianity, with humanism, with an agnostic like Bob Ingersoll. Only a few in the history of our ideas have rejected it, and even they had a standard of their own that was pretty much like a moral law.

That is the first element of democracy. The next basis of our democratic faith is a belief that human personality is sacred, that each human

being is worth saving and working for. That isn't a belief that each person is equal in talent or ability or contribution to every other. It is a belief in the worth of each, not the equality. And from that we draw our basic assumption that somehow common, plain people, men and women, can run their affairs and fully participate in self-government with intelligence and honesty. The evidence of our faith is that every adult can vote.

And the third and last element of our democracy has been our conviction that we had something there that could gradually achieve progress toward the ideal community for ourselves, and that would demonstrate to a war-torn world of the eighteenth, and early nineteenth, century that they too could hope. We have had a mission to many lands, expressed in the latter half of the last century in our hospitality to millions fleeing from oppression and lack of opportunity, expressed in the future, pray God, in the protection around the globe of those who are working also for our patriot dreams.

That dream has not been easy to cherish in these latter years. We have been obsessed with economics and have forgotten that economics feeds few souls. We have been struggling with the problem of protecting the free individualism of the old frontier and land of opportunity, and yet learning how to find every man a job and a living in a great complex economy where the little man seems lost, helpless, starving in a land of plenty. We can solve that problem, too, under this democracy of ours, but it is a problem of the community, and no community can accomplish any of its purposes except by a loyalty to a great cause, a common loyalty.

DEMOCRACY MUST BE INTERPRETED CORRECTLY

The attempt of any of us to interpret democracy is pretty feeble after all, isn't it? But that is the teaching job you have. And I suggest to you that it takes an overmastering love of our country to make the interpretation live. Steve Benet reviewed all the State WPA guides a few weeks back. They describe the part of the country you live in and tell you things you didn't know and make you love it all the more. But they give the key to our question perhaps, for they tell about people. It is so much like what his background and travels arouse in Louis Adamic. It has the same thrill if you look for it, as *Ballad for Americans*. Here is what Steve Benet wrote:

Where do you come from, brother? My forebears came over on the Mayflower; my daddy was kidnaped and sold; my folks just followed a wagon out of town. I'm a Hoosier and a Jayhawker and a Tarheel; I'm a Native Son of the Golden West and a Daughter of the Confederacy. I'm a Hard-Shell, Foot Washing Baptist, but my uncle was a Kerry man, and he brought his fiddle with him. Where I come from, brother, they eat folks like you for breakfast. Where I come from we raise potatoes the size of pumpkins and pumpkins the size of washboilers. No, my folks didn't come on the Mayflower, but when the Mayflower landed they were waiting on the dock.

These democratic ideals of ours need flesh and blood from the men and women of our history, the pioneers and circuit riders and reformers

and robber barons and church elders and policemen and politicians and saints and philosophers. And perhaps we need a symbol to gather up these bases of democracy like the great brooding figure in that square Greek temple on the Potomac. Perhaps we need a creed. Here is one from his lips, spoken in war time:

With malice toward none; with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan; to do all which may achieve a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.

Spirituality and War

TULLY C. KNOLES

President, College of the Pacific, Stockton, California

IT IS VERY DIFFICULT to get a clear sense of the meaning of the word spirituality. It is, of course, obvious from its derivation that it has to do with the essence of life, the breath, the deep fundamental of human existence. But throughout the ages there has been gathered into the term meanings that are opposed to material, as intellectual and higher endowments of the mind. It has been easy to move from the intellectual to the moral and use the word spirituality to express moral states and to denote moral experiences, and in many forms of religion to denote living conditions in a man or human groups dominated by the divine or Holy Spirit. It has also been used as an ecclesiastical term to describe offices and officers of various churches in both their religious and political relationships.

SPIRITUALITY AND DUALISM

Fundamentally, spirituality presupposes dualism for historically it is opposed usually to materiality. In most systems of dualism spirit emerges only through conflict with matter and the degree of spirituality is gauged by the victory over matter.

In the old Hindu religion pessimism was the most dominant element. Life itself was an unwanted burden, existence was evil, and unfortunately any lessening of the burden of life or possible physical enjoyment retarded the growth toward spirituality and had to be compensated for by more rigorous resignations in this life and transmigration of the soul through other material forms until purification was achieved. So pessimistic was this way of life that the Highest Good could only be reached by such destruction of all materiality connected with the soul as to permit it to be in Nirvana or Nothingness.

Those who carried the Hindu philosophy to its completion as a religion found on the way toward the highest good hardship, sacrifice, repression, inhibition, and it must be admitted an occasional exultation as the sense of victory of the spirit over the body momentarily made itself manifest.

Hardships were to be endured, not as necessary accompaniments of the struggle of a soul against the untoward forces of nature without, or of appetites and desires within; nor yet as a combination of inimical physical and human forces without, but as an exercise in the denial of the reality of the material and its possible good.

Sacrifices were made not to lay up physical goods for future consumption or for their bestowal upon others, but as a victory over what scientists and physicians today would call the normal process of metabolism. Too much stress cannot be laid on this practice of sacrifice in the old Indian philosophy. It has in it no grace in itself or virtue of sympathy for the suffering of another—the practitioner was only saving his soul for Nirvana by his sacrifice. Therefore, sacrifice had no social expression or goal. It could neither be shared nor divided.

Repression was not cultivated to conserve physical powers for the sake of use in a future emergency, but to batter down normal appetites which if satisfied it was thought would mar spirituality. The repression of influences that would lead to the dissipation of the strength of an athlete is one thing—repression for its own sake is another thing.

Inhibition was more than self-control of passions normal to the physical; it was annihilation for the sake of the prize of Nirvana as the cessation of all otherwise necessary transmigrations. Introspection was practiced primarily to discover before they were fully developed physical tendencies that might be dangerous. Those who were about to achieve spirituality often presented a gruesome sight. Of course, we realize that in the practicing of this religious philosophy, as in the case of all others, only a few carried the system to anything like a logical conclusion while many, many millions only followed afar off. However, the belief in the baseness of the material life and in transmigration of souls was general and, hence, all relationships with, and considerations of, all forms of animal life are abnormal.

BUDDHISM

This old Hindu philosophy was refined and to a degree humanized by Gautama Siddhartha, Lord Buddha in the sixth century before Christ. It was almost as pessimistic as its predecessor, but it made this advance—matter with the accompanying appetites and passions was to be controlled by the Spirit and not destroyed, but the end was the same—Nirvana.

As the educational psychologist of the immediate past generation developed the idea of an apperceptive mass to express the fact that the individual brings to each fresh experience not a void into which the form of a new experience goes, but a mass of all previous sense perceptions as a nexus, so the Indian philosophy predicated an accumulation of experiences, good and bad, to hand over in the case of each new transmigration, so that the various transmigrations were not always toward Nirvana. There might be backslidings. The name Karma was given to this nexus and the old concept and practice of the destruction of the material

was changed to the development of control, thus providing for the emergence of will and creating a higher spirituality—that of victory in the handling of situations in which temptation of the most subtle kind was gladly met and conquered.

Sir Edwin Arnold in his "Light of Asia" tells in a most charming manner the story of Prince Gautama, Lord Buddha. In Buddhism spirituality itself has a dual quality. Part of it was developed in the struggle for the mastery. Had this been all it would have come very close to the philosophy of Zeno the Stoic, but Buddhism—alas—must be considered atheistic, amorphous, and having no adequate objective.

Both systems are totally in themselves devoid of sympathy for the sufferings of others; both systems have no concept of the human personality and the heredity and environmental forces entering into its growth and possible values. For thousands of years these systems have dominated perhaps one-third of the human race and the product can be carefully estimated.

Human life is not only cheap; it is more than worthless. Sympathy, if at all present, is a weakness. Animals may be friends or relatives in a state of transmigration, so do not kill, injure, or offend them, or use any of their remains or products after death.

Fakirs exploited their own and the sufferings of others by making at times horrible exhibitions of themselves, showing their utter indifference to pain. Some, by systems of breathing and muscular control, seemed to be able to modify and even reverse bodily functions.

Of course, these were extreme manifestations. The great mass of the devotees lived more or less normal lives but were conscious of their inability to overcome materiality. Out of the minds of the truly intellectual and highly moral there was and still is a highly spiritualizing influence. So much so that philosophical disquisition has been developed to a high degree and beautiful poetry, ethereal and mystic, stir many devotees.

THE DUALISM OF PERSIA

Persian dualism is as clear cut as is that of India, but here we find a dualism of good and evil, and good manifests itself in both matter and spirit. Likewise, evil is both matter and spirit. Thus, things, animals, including humans, combining matter and spirit, are forms of an almost eternal struggle between good and evil. We say almost, for while the contest is nearly even, the forces and persons dominated by Ormuzd eventually triumph over Ahmrimam.

In the Persian philosophy demonology reaches a highly personal level in the emergence of the prototype and possible precursor philosophically of Satan Beelzebub, The Devil. In this state of thought the highest good was attained in life and finally by the conquest through struggle of the good, matter and spirit, over the evil, matter and spirit.

GREEK PHILOSOPHY

In the Greek philosophy struggle and conflict were aspects of life

not set over against each other in a clear-cut dualism. Back of the individual and his struggle with himself were ancestral conflicts transmitted to him by the Fates, who were above and beyond even the gods themselves. Each person, human, and divine was conceived to be a bundle of conflicting appetites, passions and desires in a constant battle for self-realization in virtue. Beauty, goodness, and truth were a little more than complementary to one another. So the highest good or virtue was attained by discovering the truth, living the good, and creating beauty. And then Plato's idea had a tremendous influence upon all Greek philosophy and life: material things in proper arrangement expressed the idea in a pattern. of harmonious, stimulating, expanding, living personality.

Consequently, Greek cities were clean, gleaming white in an azure sky. Greek men and women were symmetrical and strong in form and feature, able to endure, passionately fond of liberty; the struggle for liberty ennobled the living and enshrined the dead. In the Graeco-Roman world there was the emergence of a European system of thought which furnished the medium for the receipt and furthering of Christianity.

The philosophies of Plato, Aristotle, Epicureus, and Zeno, the Stoic, all made a profound impression upon the Roman mind, itself too practical for the deep musings of metaphysics. But the Graeco-Roman world received all that came to Rome and modified it. Was not then the highest good "a sound mind in a strong body"?

HEBREW THOUGHT

Good and evil were the results of attitudes toward the Divine Law with the Hebrew mind. The source of Law was the mind of God and virtue consisted in obedience. The seat of authority was in the "Thus saith the Lord." There seems to have been no personalizing of evil until Persian contact. The highest good was easily defined—perfect obedience to the Law, symbolized by the Pharisee. Justice was a passion for the Mosaic law was the highest expression of justice, and any deviation from it was reprehensible.

Hebrew spirituality was expressed in a knowledge of the law, a respect for its provision, and a certain confidence in the automatic provision for the visiting of the good upon the faithful. Calmness, faith, resignation, and peace were all spiritual attributes. "Thou wilt keep him in perfect peace whose mind is stayed on Thee, because he trusteth in Thee." Nowhere else in literature is deeper spirituality found than in the Hebrew scriptures.

CHRISTIAN SPIRITUALITY

Christianity is more or less synthetic, and in the teaching of Jesus and more particularly in the more or less formal writings of St. Paul, are very definite evidences of dualism and of the essential opposition of matter and spirit. In the time of Jesus certain Jewish sects, particularly the Essenes, were very ascetic in character and the Nazarene was very much influenced by them.

The teaching of Jesus, of course, primarily revolves around the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of man, but it also had a deeply spiritual significance. Every element of Indian, Persian, and Greek dualism appears in some form in the recorded life of Jesus, but it was elevated above crudity, baseness, and exploitation. The highest good in Jesus' teaching was in the practice of love toward God and man.

In the gospels spirituality was personalized in the emergence of the person of the Holy Spirit and Sonship with God was expressed by the fact of the birth not by water or blood but by the Spirit.

It is a curious fact that Jesus like Socrates was not interested in writing or in the formulation of doctrines. He was not careful to be understood and He left the building of formulated religion entirely in the hands of his followers. Hence, Paul, the most urbane and intellectual of His disciples, with his Jewish psychology, his Greek learning, and Roman citizenship, has the place of preeminence in the growth of Christian theology and ethics. Paul was conscious always of ethical conflict. He longed for delivery from the Body of Death, and he fought an inner war between what he called the carnal and the spiritual, but he fought, not for the destruction of his appetites and passions, but for control. He went beyond Prince Gautama, Lord Buddha, for Paul recognized a personal God and a risen Christ, and he found his highest personal good in the victory of his better nature, both the flesh and the spirit over his earthly nature through the divine grace—this divine grace he believed to be sufficient for every temptation to evil. Thus, Paul had also some influence from the Persian dualism.

As organized Christianity developed, it proved over and over again that it had not only absorbed much from previous religions and philosophies, but was prepared to make continuous modifications of its beliefs and practices as it came into contact with new conditions, peoples, and times. Rome gave it form, but the Spirit had many manifestations. Whether we like it or not or whether we are even aware of it, asceticism has had undue influence upon Christianity. The manifestations of asceticism have varied with peoples, climates, and times. It has ranged from the anchorite to the New England Puritan and the last one did not die with Santanna's hero.

In the middle east Christian asceticism took the form of personal isolation. A cave, a hollow trunk of a tree, any place apart from society, was looked upon as a safe retreat from carnality. The prize, of course, goes to St. Simon Stylotes who built up his tower three feet in diameter to a height of more than thirty feet and lived upon it for thirty years.

In the west and central part of Europe asceticism was just as real at the base, but because the west was more socially minded the convent and the monastery took the place of the complete isolation of the east. But even in the monasteries the monks had their individual cells. Holiness was not a social virtue.

Naturally protestantism fell heir to many of the spiritual concepts of the Established Church. And asceticism modified, of course, in many points continues to be a strong factor in the production of a Christian ethic. Since the rise of protestantism spirituality has had a tendency to be a synonym for fervor of devotion or a deepened interest in evangelism; hence to have lost much of its deep philosophic meaning. At the same time the term has been used much more freely in realms not strictly religious.

We want the spirit of justice, the spirit of democracy, the spirit of internationalism. We pray for and long for a time when spirituality may be known as a thing in itself, sought for itself, valued as a virtue. And in these terrible war times all of us who are interested in human values fear that the very necessities of war itself may kill spirituality or its possibility in those who must fight our wars.

The 1941 Institute of International Relations began its sessions in Riverside, California, seven hours after the attack on Pearl Harbor. The first session was a Panel Discussion of Spirituality in Defense and War. President Davies of Colorado College, himself a Marine in World War I, said "There is no spirituality in a bayonet charge, nor in the soldiers' preparation for it."

Sherman's statement that "War is Hell" has received religious journalistic sanction in the *Christian Century*, which so quotes Dr. Georgia Harkness. The same journal also says that this war is an unnecessary necessity, a tragedy and a sin. With all of these statements the writer agrees, and he adds "All wars are wrong, most of them on both sides, but some of them have been right on one side." War is not a thing; it is an activity, a human activity initiated and participated in by men, and now total wars are participated in by all, men, women, and children. It is no longer possible to speak academically about war; it is here. Are we then to resign spirituality for the duration? From the standpoint of many it must be, and from the standpoint of some of these, it may never be revived again.

Is it not possible that spirituality is a personal virtue? The resultant of a person's reaction to the events of life as they affect him in his pursuit of his goal of the highest good constitute the elements out of which his own integrity emerges. Just what does a modern democrat consider the highest good? Is it not liberty with all that this implies to him personally, and with all that this implies to his fellows, whether of his own nation or of another's?

Beyond that liberty does he not want an opportunity to grow, to develop, to live in peace and prosperity, and to see all others have the same privileges? He is willing to sacrifice for those ends. He suffers hardship for them. He inhibits his selfishness and represses his base desires for the common good. He is not usually an absolutist with a perfectionist ethics. Only a few attain, but many follow after. Would it not simplify matters if we said that the victory of the best over the better, to say nothing of the worst, constitutes

spirituality? If that be true, spirituality may be developed in peace; but it also may be developed in war, if liberty is attacked or destroyed and one fights to restore it. One asks "Can spirituality be if the liberties of others are violated?"

Our literature is filled with the stories of men, women, nations, civilizations that have been forced to fight and who in the process of fighting have been purified, ennobled, and have become ennobled. But can anyone produce a story of great spiritual afflatus from a conquest of aggression?

In the last war men suffered, were maimed and mangled, wounded in body and spirit. The cost in blood, tears, and treasure was terrific, but opportunity for self-determination of peoples, for the trial of democracy, for co-operative keeping of the peace was given. People and government failed. That is disheartening, but submission to the enemy order would not cure the failure; because we failed we are chastened. We have been dragged into the sorry mess again. Out of it we pray will come a new order wherein dwelleth righteousness. And we may fight for worthy ideals and for the good of our enemies no less than for the good of ourselves.

History tells us that freedom has not been granted to peoples and nations as a boon. It has been necessary to win it by blood and sacrifice and to maintain it at all costs. It is and it has been forever true that the price of liberty has been eternal vigilance. We dream of world peace in a far off day, but today, however, hateful war claims us. The four freedoms will not be granted by the axis powers upon request. A negotiated peace with the chief leader of the axis will not be a peace guaranteeing the four freedoms. How do we know? From the written and spoken words of Berlin, Rome, and Tokyo, but more we know from the conquered European nations and from China.

Smugly and complacently, rich and amply protected upon the mainland, the United States might have kept herself from invasion. Mind you, I said might have been kept from invasion. It is by no means sure that a surrender of the Philippines to their Japanese fate and a withdrawal of our friendship to China would have saved us.

But when one surveys Europe enchained and embattled, and the Far East doomed to slavery, one is reminded of the parable of the Good Samaritan. Certainly after the war America as before will enact the role of the Good Samaritan. The United States as a government and the citizens of the Republic through charitable and religious organizations, organized by Herbert Hoover or his successor, will again as before feed, clothe, house, and hospitalize the sufferers. And certainly a great spiritual advance will come to the comforted and to those giving comfort. But the element of chronology in the parable of the Good Samaritan has always troubled me. Suppose the Great Teacher had timed the arrival of the Good Samaritan, not after the wounds had been inflicted and the priest and Levite had passed by, but at the time of the attack and the beating. What then would have been considered good neighborliness?

How the Schools Should Carry On

J. W. STUDEBAKER

U. S. Commissioner of Education

WE MEET TONIGHT under circumstances unprecedented in the history of this association. It is true that the association was born on the eve of our entrance into the first World War. But the war in which we are now engaged is distinguished from the last one in many important respects, especially in its global and mechanized character. The United States did not seek this war. It came to us with the sudden and treacherous attack upon Pearl Harbor. That attack brought unity to the Nation—and a certain sense of relief and of release because the die had finally been cast. At last we knew precisely where we stood. At last we were openly arrayed with the forces resisting evil and aggression.

In the ten weeks since Pearl Harbor our first rush of anger and amazement has settled into grim determination as we have come to see ever more clearly what will be required of us for victory. We know that the war will not be an easy one, that it may be of long duration; that we may suffer many more reverses on land, at sea, and in the air before our objectives are attained. President Roosevelt said on January 6, 1942:

Our own objectives are clear: the objective of smashing the militarism imposed by war lords upon their enslaved peoples; the objective of liberating the subjugated Nations; the objective of establishing and securing freedom of speech, freedom of religion, freedom from want, and freedom from fear everywhere in the world. We shall not stop short of these objectives nor shall we be satisfied merely to gain them and then call it a day. I know that I speak for the American people and I have good reason to believe that I speak for all the other peoples that fight with us when I say that this time we are determined not only to win the war but also to maintain the security of the peace that will follow.

This is a total war. It means total participation in the war effort by every citizen and every institution in the most appropriate capacity. What part can the secondary schools most appropriately play in winning this war?

The general character of my answer to that question can best be illustrated by a story which was going the rounds a few months ago. On one London street where the rain of Nazi bombs had been particularly destructive, the entire front of a merchant's small shop had been blown away. Somehow he had obtained scraps of material with which to repair his store front and over the doorway had hung a crudely painted sign which read: "Open As Usual." A few doors away another shopkeeper had lost his store front but had been unable to find the materials for repair. His little shop's interior stood completely exposed. But not to be outdone by his neighbor, this Britisher too had contrived the sign outside his place of business. His sign read simply: "More Open Than Usual." More open than usual to all calls for service in freedom's cause, whether these calls

come from government or from the compulsions of humanity's need, will be the secondary schools of the Nation. More open than usual alike to the youth and to the adults of the community. More open than usual to suggestions for modification of school programs to make them serve the common need.

But more specifically, how—in what manner—should the schools carry on? It may seem like carrying coals to Newcastle for me to attempt detailed answers to that question before this audience of outstanding practitioners of the art and science of secondary-school administration; and more especially since most of you have read, or will read, that splendid pronouncement recently published by the Educational Policies Commission on the subject, "A War Policy for the American Schools." "It is already clear," says the Commission's report, "that many educational adaptations are required. Many aspects of education will need to be strengthened and extended. Other aspects, very important ones in time of peace, may be re-directed or otherwise modified in order that the total expanded effort of war-time education may be applied at the point of greatest need. . . . Without abandoning essential services of the schools, appropriate war duties of the schools should be given absolute and immediate priority in time, attention, personnel, and funds over any and all other activities."¹ The Commission then proceeds to list and discuss briefly eleven war-time priorities for education and to make certain general recommendations concerning special problems created for schools by the impact of the war.

In the time which remains to me I want to discuss briefly with you and thus to underscore just four items on the Commission's priorities list, namely: (1) Promoting health and physical efficiency. (2) Training workers for war industries and services. (3) Teaching the issues, aims and progress of the war and the peace. (4) Sustaining the morale of children and adults.

Before proceeding, let me say that I am in entire agreement with the Commission that it is particularly desirable that for younger children the schools should maintain as high a degree of normal procedure as possible. And for the most part I place junior high-school pupils in the category of "younger children." Hence my discussion will apply more particularly to senior high-school and junior-college students.

PROMOTING HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EFFICIENCY

This association is fully conscious, I know, of the potentiality of the Nation's schools for contributing to the maintenance and improvement of standards of health and physical fitness among the youth especially and to some extent among adults. The secondary schools, since they enroll a majority of the Nation's older youth—youth who will soon be carrying adult's responsibilities as workers or as fighting forces—are in a strategic

¹*A War Policy for American Schools*, Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C., February, 1942, pp. 3-4.

position to contribute directly to the health and physical efficiency of the Nation's manpower. The elements in a well-rounded program of health and physical education are well known to all of you. The need in secondary schools is simply to make these elements actually operative in every school. All secondary schools should provide for thorough physical examinations by school physicians of every student at least at entrance and before graduation. Every school should provide for a vigorous follow-up of these examinations to secure the correction of such remediable defects as dental caries, malnutrition, and imperfect vision. Remedial action is properly regarded as a function of the private physician or of the public health clinic rather than of the schools.

Health instruction, more or less universal in the elementary and junior high school, is frequently neglected in the senior high school. This is a matter deserving careful study by secondary-school administrators.

From time to time the suggestion is put forward that every secondary school ought to adopt a vigorous program of military drill for its value in pre-conditioning young people for military service and in developing physical fitness. I understand from military authorities in Washington that they do not desire to see any extension of military training as such in the secondary schools at the present time. Rather, are they concerned that the secondary schools and colleges should carry forward a vigorous program of health and physical education designed to develop the physical strength and vigor of all our youth. In many secondary schools a daily period for physical education and health instruction has been provided. In others the program is dependent upon the use of after-school hours for a program of intramural sports and games. In any case, the suggestion of the Policies Commission that secondary schools use the assistance of older youth in supervised programs of physical education and sports which will utilize to the fullest the facilities of the schools has great merit. I might add, parenthetically, that reports reaching the Office of Education indicate that most colleges and many secondary schools have already greatly increased their time allotments for physical education and that many of them are offering new courses in home nursing, first aid, nutrition, and the like.

TRAINING WORKERS FOR WAR INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES

After eighteen months of defense production there were as of December 31, 1941 approximately five million men and women at work under defense contracts. According to first rough estimates of the Bureau of Labor statistics, today's war effort calls for the mobilization of industry to employ an additional ten million workers by December 1, 1942. From what source will these workers come? Again the Bureau of Labor statistics informs us that between two and three million will be potential workers not now employed, such as young people just reaching working age, women now engaged as house wives, domestic workers, and sales people; a relatively small group now employed as part-time or seasonal workers; and the

"employable unemployed." The other seven or eight million will have to be shifted from non-war to war industries.

The problem of organizing the labor market on a war basis is the primary responsibility of the Labor Division of the War Production Board. Within this Labor Division there is a Director of the Training Section who is also Director of Defense Training for the Federal Security Agency, of which the U. S. Office of Education is a part. This Training Section maintains close relationships with the newly-federalized Public Employment Service; with the Training-Within-Industry Branch, the Labor Relations Branch, and the Priorities Branch of the Labor Division. Thus the needs and problems of the W.P.B., its subordinate divisions, and the Federal Security Agency are quickly channeled to the Office of Education which in turn administers the programs on the Federal level through State Boards for Vocational Education and higher educational institutions. Here we have a good example of true co-ordination of various administrative agencies whose responsibilities are recognized and whose energies are released for vigorous action within their respective fields. The co-ordination of the training effort of the Nation's schools with these other Federal agencies charged with responsibility for labor recruitment and training, as this co-ordination has been developed during the past eighteen months, will stand us in good stead in the days ahead.

The problem of training workers to meet the demands of war industries is increasingly urgent. I need not review for the members of this association the accomplishments of the Defense Training program which, since July 1940, has been in operation in the schools and colleges. More than 2,800,000 enrollments have been reported in school and college training courses during that period. The current net enrollment now stands at more than half a million. Yet the training needs have not been completely met in every community. The chief bottleneck to further expansion of the program at the present time is the difficulty in securing training equipment on the one hand and competent teachers on the other.

The first recommendation of the U. S. Office of Education War-time Commission, recently organized to assist the Office in facilitating adjustments of educational agencies to war needs, dealt with the problem of accelerating the work of colleges so as to increase the supply of technically and professionally trained personnel for the war effort. It is to be assumed that the war will last for several years. If, then, the age for selective military service remains at twenty, the question posed for schools and colleges is how young people may best invest their time prior to graduation or withdrawal from school to accept employment or to enter military service. One suggestive answer to that question comes from Los Angeles where I understand that the Venice High School has been carrying on an experimental six-year high-school and junior-college curriculum in vocational metal product manufacturing. This curriculum was designed to give special emphasis to thorough technical and shop training. It is partially

sponsored by the Douglas Aircraft Corporation which employs many of the young people completing the course. Some cultural subjects have had to be eliminated; but it is significant that subject offerings permit meeting college entrance requirements of both the Arts and Engineering colleges. Here is an illustration of a program designed not so much to accelerate student graduation as to accelerate student education.

After all, secondary schools are institutions of democracy designed for the nurture and development of men and women prepared to do things. The content of the curriculum ought therefore to be based upon an analysis of the needs, problems, and activities of men and women in their capacity as citizens insofar as the general phases of education are concerned; and upon an analysis of the needs, problems, and activities of men and women in their capacity as workers insofar as vocational education is concerned. In these times, especially, the curriculum should be organized in terms of these major areas of human experience and need with emphasis on education for work. More and more we must relate educational experiences to home making, to work life, and to an understanding of personal and social problems. The kind of acceleration most urgently needed is an acceleration in this process of curriculum adaptation.

In connection with policies of acceleration or of curriculum adaptation there is urgent need in all secondary schools for the provision of suitable guidance and counseling services to young people. I know that you are all conscious of that need. Since my time is limited, I shall not expand the point.

TEACHING THE ISSUES, AIMS, AND PROGRESS OF THE WAR AND THE PEACE

The dictator nations cling to the ancient adage, dear to the hearts of tyrants, "Theirs not to reason why!" We in the democracies say to the people, "Come, let us reason together."

The social studies courses of the secondary schools offer the best opportunity for a consideration of the issues, aims, and progress of the war and the security of the peace to follow. They should be adapted to this end. In spite of the barrage of information and interpretation on what this war means which reaches us through the daily press and the radio, the gap between being told and understanding is still perilously wide. Hearing and reading about the war are not enough. We must study and discuss it in an organized way; chew upon the hard facts and digest the difficult concepts. That is the task of the schools, and especially of the secondary schools both as regards the youth in school and the adults in the community.

To help with this organizing of study and discussion, the Civilian Morale Service of the Office of Education is now collaborating with the editors of secondary-school periodicals in publishing a pamphlet which will provide a brief outline for a course on "What the War Means to Us." Upon this framework, it is expected that the schools can build current material from the press, newsreels, and the radio—making it all contribute

to an understanding of the aims and the problems of the war and of the problems which must be met in post-war reconstruction.

It must be clear that understanding will not come from an occasional school patriotic pep talk. Understanding calls for well-organized study and discussion; and for correlated activities which reach out into the community for service in the war effort. Some plan should be organized in each secondary school by which all pupils in school can be regularly reached each week under the best teacher-leadership available. Several plans which many secondary schools have used in conducting current-problems forums in the past might be adapted to the present situation. Thus in relatively small secondary schools, the pupils might be assembled in the auditorium for a weekly assembly clock hour under the guidance of a skillful leader; each such assembly to be devoted to an announced topic in a general war-problems series. Student panels might be organized to assist; visual aids, maps, charts, recordings, and the like should have been prepared or secured in advance whenever possible. Occasionally it may be desirable to invite an outside speaker to participate in the program. The teachers of the social studies should follow up the assembly discussion in at least one class period during the week, relating the topic discussed insofar as possible to the regular course of study, and using the secondary-school periodicals which are teaching tools in an increasing number of secondary schools.

In larger schools, different sections of the student body can be scheduled to attend the assembly-forum on different days of the week, thus reaching the entire student body once each week in small and relatively homogeneous sections. Teachers may take turns in planning and leading the discussions; or in some schools the principal himself, or a selected teacher will undertake the responsibility for the leadership of the forum hour for all groups.

In any case the salient points to bear in mind are: (1) To reach all pupils each week in organized study discussion. (2) Make use of the best discussion leadership available. (3) Plan the program in advance, using visual aids, recordings, and the like. (4) Give pupils a chance for expression. (5) Use periodicals and pamphlets, in a follow-up study discussion in the classroom.

A majority of secondary schools already make regular use of classroom periodicals. Indeed such periodicals have become well-nigh indispensable as teaching aids in a program of social studies instruction. Books and pamphlets run behind the swift-moving events of these critical times. In co-operation with the Civilian Morale Service of the Office of Education these special school periodicals have assumed the major responsibility for developing and distributing materials to their estimated three and one-half million readers. Each one will exercise its own editorial judgment as to the form and substance of material presented. There will be no imposition of subject matter by the Federal Office of Education. Our part will be (1) to provide whatever appropriate services we can to all of the publishers

to make their publications serve the cause of national unity based on understanding, (2) to utilize the weekly columns of all of these periodicals as one means of communication from the Office of Education with the schools, (3) to suggest to the periodicals from time to time how they may help to meet the need for understanding of particular phases of the war effort.

SUSTAINING THE MORALE OF CHILDREN AND ADULTS

And now finally I come to a closely related consideration, namely, how should the schools carry on in maintaining the morale of pupils and adults? The Educational Policies Commission has said,

In this war situation the Commission continues to believe that the basic method for the development of morale in the United States, the only method that gives promise of continuing effectiveness, the only method that is worthy of a free people, is the method of education. The morale thus created will not only withstand the threat of the dictators today but it will also serve our country well in the long pull ahead.^a

In last analysis morale is a matter of moral commitment, of loyalty and dedication to cherished ideals and values. The personal integrity of the free man is conditioned by the character of this commitment. I think it is significant that our morale was heightened following the events of December 7. At once our moral commitment became clear—the right and the wrong stood forth in bold relief. We saw clearly that we were fighting not only for our country's freedom but for a civilized moral code; fighting against cruelty and greed; against perfidy and all its evil brood. With all of the sorrow and tragedy of war, this fact must be kept clear if we are ever to build a more humane and just society after the struggle is ended. In one sense indeed we are fighting for the rank and file of the people in the aggressor countries, insofar as they are the helpless tools or deluded followers of evil rulers.

Our problem from the standpoint of maintaining morale is likely to be somewhat different from that of Britain. Our peril is that of indifference—of normalcy—of apathy and diminished fervor. It is therefore a most important contribution which the schools and colleges of America are asked to make to morale—for they must help to keep alive the idealism which lights our pathway and nerves our effort.

In connection with the maintenance of morale by children and adults, I should like to emphasize what the Educational Policies Commission has said concerning the importance of adult education in the program of the schools. The Commission says:

It can hardly be over-emphasized that in the strengthening of loyalty, the sustaining of morale, the promotion of an understanding of the war and its consequences and causes, and the winning of the peace, the audience of the teaching profession must include the adult population as well as children and youth. The major decisions of public policy are being made by adults. . . . Hence adult education becomes a central, rather than a

^a*Ibid.*, p. 24.

marginal educational responsibility. Schools and libraries should serve as community centers for discussion, reading, and recreation, as places where in times of crisis, adults can turn for a sense of community, a feeling of assurance, a knowledge of the facts, a clearing house of opinion, and a source of unity and high purpose. . . . "The janitor leaves at five" is no longer a valid excuse for the neglect of adult education services. Schools, like factories and offices, should be open for whatever hours will permit them best to do their share in helping to win the war.³

How should the secondary schools carry on? In summary I have suggested (1) that they redouble their efforts to promote in every practicable way the better health and nutrition and the greater physical vigor of our population; (2) that they intensify their efforts to train both youth and adults for war industries and services; and in so doing that they give special attention to curriculum modifications which will insure the more rapid development of specialized competencies; (3) that they take steps to insure the regular organized study and discussion of the issues, aims, and progress of the war and the peace by all pupils under the most capable leadership available; and (4) that they seek to make of the secondary schools community centers for adult educational and recreational activities and thus contribute to civilian morale—a civilian morale soundly based on understanding; a civilian morale which counts all the cost of war, all the destruction and bloodshed and deprivation, as of little moment so long as the objectives for which we fight are assured. I know that the secondary schools of America will not be found wanting. The schools will do their full part, in wartime as in peacetime, to build men and women of the physical, intellectual, and moral stature to measure up to their responsibilities, come what may. The secondary schools will *carry on!*

³*Ibid.*, pp. 27-28.

First General Session

Monday, February 23, 2:30 p.m., Colonial Room, St. Francis Hotel

Topic: PROVIDING EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

This was a joint meeting with the Association of California Secondary-School Principals.

Earle E. Crawford, President, Association of California Secondary-School Principals, and Principal, Glenn County Union High School, Wil-lows, California, was chairman of the session.

Preparing Teachers for the Secondary School of the Future

KARL W. BIGELOW

*Director, Commission on Teacher Education, American Council
on Education*

IT IS EVIDENTLY not possible to talk of the preparation of teachers for the secondary school of the future without making certain assumptions as to what that school will be like. I should have been gratified, consequently, if your officers had provided me with a set of specifications when they invited me to speak on this program. Since, unhappily, they failed to do this I am reduced to the necessity of doing my own crystal gazing. I approach the task, I assure you, with considerable hesitancy. Prophecy is always a hazardous trade, and in times like these may justly be considered as positively foolhardy. Perhaps, however, I may ward off some of the dangers by frankly admitting that a certain amount of wish-projection lies at the basis of what I shall describe as the secondary school of the future.

I want a rational world, a rational nation, and rational people. I want a society that is built on the rock of respect for human personality. I want personalities that are creative and that are voluntarily bound together by love and understanding. I want men and women free to work together for the common welfare, and a social order that guarantees justice to all. I want an international organization consistent with our noblest ideals and capable of creating a durable peace. For me the school of the future is one that will help achieve all of these desires. Perhaps my hopes will not be realized. But no American educator, I think, will blame me for setting my sights high.

NEEDS OF THE SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE

I shall begin, then, by considering in more detail the needs that the school of the future must be expected to meet. These may be thought of as the needs of the society that supports the school—in which case we

must be careful to remember that that society is at bottom nothing but a population of individuals bearing certain relationships one to another. Or we may think of the needs of the boys and girls who attend the school—but then we must not forget that they are part of society and reflect its problems. In other words, while it is convenient to talk of social needs and personal needs, it is an error to suppose that they are really quite distinct.

With this warning, I may start with the social angle by saying that society needs citizens with a core of common convictions. Nothing is more important than that, for it is such a core that guarantees ultimate social unity. And without such unity a nation cannot stand. It is important however, to recognize that conviction implies more than verbal assent. Memorization and repetition of principles will by itself avail little. It is the building of belief into behavior that counts.

Now evidently the core of common conviction may vary from society to society and I should be expected to specify what I have in mind for our country in the foreseeable future. This I am ready to do. I have in mind nothing more and nothing less than the essential principles of democratic living. *First* of all, there is a conviction of the infinite value of the individual. *Second* is a conviction that all men are equal with regard to the respect in which their personalities should be held and despite recognition of their infinite variety so far as capacities, ambitions, and skills are concerned. *Third* is the conviction that man is a rational animal and that through the exercise of reason his problems may be solved. It is essential that the citizens of a democracy should hold and act upon these beliefs. Such a society needs schools that will produce citizens who so believe and behave accordingly.

TWO SOCIAL NEEDS

If this need can be adequately met, the satisfaction of other social needs in a democracy will, I think, be taken care of almost automatically. This statement is likely, however, to appear somewhat obscure and I had consequently better expand it. The clue lies in the word "act," and in the assumption that action in response to democratic convictions will be intelligent. Let me develop the point in relation to two social needs that all will recognize: the need for a domestic order that provides equal opportunity for the realization of personal powers and for the reaping of corresponding rewards; and the need for an international order which by reason of the same characteristics is capable of maintaining peace with justice. The achievement of these ideals can only be the result of democratic action, but that action must be determined not merely by a sensitive regard for personality but also by a correct understanding of probable consequences. The old story of the tender-hearted elephant who sought to compensate for the unintended crushing of a mother bird by sitting on the victim's nest will illustrate my point. We may then declare that society

needs citizens who not merely share basic convictions but who also possess such understanding of nature, man, and the social order as will enable them to pursue their purposes effectively.

OPPORTUNITY TO REALIZE INDIVIDUAL POTENTIALITIES

If we now turn to more personal needs—to those that stand out when we contemplate the boys and girls whom democracy entrusts to our care—we may say that a first requirement is opportunity to realize individual potentialities. This has a special significance for the secondary school of the future which we should pause to consider. That significance relates to the fact that a secondary-school education, from being an experience reserved for the few, is rapidly becoming the birthright of every American. When my father graduated from the secondary school, he was one of a class which, throughout the United States, accounted for less than two and one-half per cent of the population seventeen years of age. When I graduated, the percentage had risen to twelve and one-half per cent. When my eldest son graduates, in a year or two, the figures will have passed fifty per cent. Between my father's time and mine, the percentage of seventeen year olds accounted for by the number of secondary-school graduates increased fivefold. Between my time and my son's, it will have quadrupled. It need merely double in the next generation to reach the limit of one hundred per cent. The implication of these facts so far as the encouragement of potentialities is concerned is obvious and profound. The secondary schools must undertake to encourage potentialities of the utmost variety. It will no longer be possible to assume that a limited range of powers constitutes the proper concern of the high school.

This emphasis on individual potentialities must not be permitted to result in our overlooking of the social character of human existence. Birth is a social phenomenon and long years must pass before the human being could conceivably live in isolation from others of his own species. Except in rare instances, he will never indeed do so. Individual man has, therefore, a deep personal need to achieve competence in human relationships. Moreover this need takes on a special form during adolescence. At this time preexisting relationships, into which the youth was born or which have been established without particular consciousness on his part, characteristically begin to be felt as galling. A sense of selfhood begins to emerge and an impulse to be free from unwilled bonds. The struggle and suffering of this period are familiar to all secondary-school teachers. The challenge to their sympathy and understanding and power of helpfulness is great. Emancipation in the sense of full isolation is, of course, impossible. Freedom from earlier control, unbalanced by voluntary creation of new forms of relationship, will prove terrifying. The school has, therefore, a fundamental responsibility to guide the growth of youth in the achievement of positive social competence of various sorts. Competence as a nearly grown-up member of the family into which one was born is one need. Com-

petence as a co-operating member of various social groups, smaller and larger, is another. Competence in relations that point in the direction of marriage and parenthood is an important third.

YOUTH WANTS TO PRODUCE

Closely related to the need that has just been examined is youth's yearning for assurance of developing productive capacity. Youth has a characteristic and noble eagerness to contribute worthily to the well-being of society. This desire receives powerful reinforcement from two quarters. In the first place independence, in our culture, commonly depends on the capacity to support oneself—and as we have seen youth craves independence. In the second place a job and an income are also ordinarily prerequisite to marriage and the founding of a family. From the individual point of view, then—and certainly no less from the point of view of society—it is of the utmost importance that the secondary school should help young people to advance with respect to characteristics that make for productive competence. In the economic order of the future, as we can foresee it, highly specialized skill of an individualistic sort will not meet this requirement. In an economy so marked by change as ours is likely to be, narrow specialization will prove less helpful than a broader training with emphasis on basic principles and adaptability in their application to varying circumstances. Moreover, we must be sensitive to the declining role of economic individualism and the corresponding rise of planning and co-operation. Understanding of these techniques and experience in their employment ought to be provided by the school.

Implicit in what has been said up to this point has been a recognition of the need of youth for the steady development of the powers of reason. Men who are to be good citizens in a democracy must be capable of dealing rationally with their problems. This requires a sense of the importance of facts and of generalizations tested by experience. It demands control but not suppression of the emotions. Above all, perhaps, it calls for opportunities to prove the soundness of personal conclusions in action and to achieve confidence in one's own reasoning powers through a constant interplay of thinking and doing.

SOCIETY'S NEEDS

I have now emphasized certain needs which I believe the secondary school of the future must seek to satisfy. There was society's need for citizens sharing basic democratic convictions, possessed of a sound understanding of nature, of men, and of the social order, and acting in response to these convictions and according to that understanding. There was youth's corresponding need for equal opportunities to advance in the realization of widely various potentialities, to achieve competence in social and economic relations, and to increase in capacity to solve problems through the employment of reason. What manner of secondary school does the satisfaction of these requirements call for?

One essential characteristic of that school will be respect for personality. We have seen that this trait is fundamental to successful democratic living and that its development is a basic responsibility of education. Now we must recognize that respect breeds respect. Contrariwise the instruction, "Love one another," is unlikely to be effective when directed at those who are not themselves loved. Practice must support precept, and if the school is to raise up a generation of men and women sensitive to the needs of others as well as of themselves, it must consistently treat them as persons while they are in its care. The student who feels as though he were merely a standard object on the mass production line in some educational enamelling factory—being sprayed with forty minutes of this, then forty minutes of that, and so on—is unlikely to develop either personal spontaneity or sensitivity to the individuality of others. Nor will it help much if he merely has a choice of coming out a standard two-tone maroon, rather than black, blue, tan, or green.

The implication is that the secondary school of the future must provide a wide variety of opportunities for experiences in relation to individual differences as to powers and purposes. We have seen how the changing character of the secondary-school clientele supports this conclusion. But even in the case of college-bound youth of the more traditional sort, the principle stands true, even particularly true. Independence that is positively acted upon with a full sense of social obligation springs from a self-confidence and a self-respect that are assumed also to be possessed by others. The attainment of these attributes results from experience in thinking for oneself, feeling for oneself, purposing for oneself—and learning from the observed consequences. The school must encourage this sort of behavior. This means not only that it is important that the curriculum should offer a widely varied fare. It also means that within each class individual differences should be respected and opportunities for deviation from any standard pattern provided. Of equal importance, however, will be the provision of experience in co-operative endeavor where common purposes may be acted upon in part by similar, in part by differentiated behavior.

THE NEED FOR GUIDANCE

Respect for student personality also implies the need for the school to maintain a general atmosphere of friendliness and helpfulness with respect to the problems of differing, growing, whole young persons. No curriculum, however advanced, no method, however individualized, will do the trick lacking a friendly spirit. For education is fundamentally a *human* enterprise, and in the absence of genuinely *human* relationships no device or system can accomplish the results for which we are eager. The guidance point of view must permeate the school of the future and must be supported by an understanding of the nature of human growth and development.

But guidance must not be permitted to become mechanical, to operate manipulatively. It must represent a personal relationship to which teacher

and taught both contribute appropriately. The teacher's broader experience and consequent knowledge of many facts and understanding of general principles is important. So, however, is the individual student's sense of personal need and of personal purpose. Guidance should be a co-operative affair in which youth shares in planning and evaluating his course of action. Experience in planning and evaluating also needs to be provided in a broader context. The work of the classroom, the life of the school and the community—these offer opportunities for responsible co-operation, and these opportunities should be made available. In such ways, again, can respect for personality be simultaneously manifested and developed.

It may appear to some that what I have been saying about the school of the future involves an overemphasis on individual differences. I now hasten, therefore, to state my belief that that respect for personality is in no wise inconsistent with the provision of a core of experiences related to common personal and social needs. Youth in the future will continue to share many characteristics, reflecting both their common humanity and also their common experiences as members of American society. It will be important, then, that they should be helped to refine and strengthen ideals consistent with their natures and suited to the culture that surrounds them. Here philosophy, literature, and history will aid them. They need, too, to advance in understanding of themselves and of the society in the work of which they desire intelligently and unselfishly to share. Problems of personal growth, of social relationships, and of advancement towards vocational competence may be mentioned here. So may problems of nutrition, housing, medical care, consumption, agriculture, industry, government, international and intercultural relations, war, and peace. Here the resources of the natural sciences, of psychology and the social studies, of the fine and industrial arts must be brought to play. Finally it is important to recognize the common need for a degree of mastery of the methods of reasoning, of the tools of analysis and synthesis. Skill in observation, ability to generalize and employ generalizations fruitfully, and capacity to experiment and draw sound conclusions from experimental outcomes are all of prime importance to free men. Experience along these lines should be continuously provided in every possible situation. Since ability to interpret experience, to analyze it, and to express conclusions will be essential, the development of competence in the use of symbols such as words, numbers, and artistic forms will be seen to be of great importance.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE

My catalogue of problems and resources has tended properly to emphasize subject matter and has consequently led us to think in terms of the classroom. Let us now, however, turn our attention to the life of the school as a whole. This is a topic of great consequence. The secondary school of the future must seek to achieve a fully organic character according to the pattern of democratic living. A school is a society and offers to

all its members, young and old alike—an experience of social existence. If its spirit is authoritarian, if its parts are conceived of as fully separate and are mechanically related, its effect must inevitably be depersonalizing. It offers, however, a magnificent opportunity for the demonstration of democracy. Here is a society made up of a considerable number of persons, varying as to sex, age, background, ability, and purpose. They have individual problems, problems in common with smaller or larger groups of others, problems as citizens of the whole. How may such persons live and work and achieve together in ways that make due provision for respect for personality and for the requirements of social existence, for democratic control, for the contributions of the expert, and for creative leadership? The secondary school of tomorrow will meet the challenge of that question.

But the secondary school of the future will be far from considering itself a thing apart. On the contrary, it will link itself far more closely than in the past with the life of the surrounding community. This it will do for a variety of reasons. As its clientele approximates one hundred per cent of adolescent youth, their reflection of all community problems and their destiny to become responsible workers in every aspect of community life will lead the school to crave complete contacts for its own guidance. Close relations with the community will also be desired in the interest of providing first-hand experiences—in work and in other relationships—for pupils who learn only slowly and imperfectly through books alone. (Incidentally the great value of such experience as a part of the education of *all* youth will be increasingly recognized.) The spread of the community school will moreover in my opinion, be related to a more widespread social phenomenon. This is the rise of social planning, accompanied by a balancing decentralization of social endeavor and the reanimation of the community as a theater for co-operative endeavor. The increase of centralized social control may be forecast without much hesitation. It has many potentialities for good. But it may enslave us unless there is a compensating decentralization that continuously provides opportunities at the grass-roots for co-operative planning and doing on the part of common men. The school has a notable opportunity to provide spiritual and practical leadership in the reintegration of community living.

Throughout this sketch of the secondary school of the future, I have reiterated the notion that thinking will be combined with acting. I should like to give special emphasis to this idea before concluding this section of my remarks. The traditional aim of the school has been the stimulation of intellectual growth, and the means most commonly employed have been reading and speaking. Both aims and means are excellent, but are increasingly seen to be inadequate by themselves. The impulse to thought is provided by purpose as formed through experience. The excellence of thought is a function of observation as well as of power of reasoning, and direct observation has values more direct than the also valuable observation reported by others. The natural consequence of thought is action, whereby accomplishment may be brought about and the excellence of

thinking may continuously be tested. In earlier days our culture provided much and varied experience for children, and many opportunities for responsible action, often in co-operation with adults. At that time, moreover, secondary schools were chiefly attended by youth who had demonstrated their particular facility for dealing with abstractions and for learning from experience as reported by others. Now times have changed. Our culture provides fewer and fewer unplanned opportunities for young people to share responsibility in what they feel to be the real business of life; and the tendency is for all to prolong their school experience until graduation from the secondary school. Under these circumstances the school must arrange for thinking to be blended with doing and for both—for reasons already set forth—to be related closely to the needs of adolescents in our society.

EDUCATING THE TEACHER

It may seem to many of you that I have been overleisurely in leading up to an attack on my assigned topic, the preparation of teachers, but I did not see how I could avoid such preliminary effort and I think it will prove to have shortened the task that lies before. I fear I ought to warn you, however, that I shall not be able to stop even when that task is completed. The reason is as follows: I am unable to think of the *preparation* of teachers without simultaneously thinking of their continued growth in service. Teacher education does not seem to me something that ends with the award of a degree, a certificate, and a job. It ought to be continuous until death or retirement concludes the teaching career. Such it will be in the secondary school of the future.

We may begin, however, with teacher preparation and will agree at once, I think, that teachers ought to have the same kind of general education which was specified in what has been previously said. A teacher should be a good specimen of the best in the culture. Candidates for the teaching profession should be selected and then treated in ways calculated to guarantee that they will be free, active, and socially effective persons. Their professional education should unify rather than divide them; it should result in a common store of expert skill and understanding that will help them to constitute a genuine profession rather than a mere aggregation of diverse specialists. I believe three elements in this aspect of the teacher's education deserve special emphasis. *First* comes an understanding of human growth and development which will enable them to deal skillfully and sympathetically with diverse personalities. *Second* is an understanding of society and especially of the community which will make it possible for them to grasp the essence of their social role and perform it competently, making full use of community resources and meeting community needs. *Third* is a mastery of educational techniques that will enable them to start with the needs of youth—individual and general—and utilize their superior resources so as to facilitate learning of a genuine and substantial character. I do not think I need to elaborate these ideas. Those of you who recall

my remarks regarding the secondary school of the future will readily see their bearing.

It goes without saying that secondary-school teachers will continue to need advanced preparation in one or more special fields of knowledge. I myself believe that these had better be broad fields rather than the narrower specialties that are often required at present. But in any case scholarship—to employ the usual term—will be essential. The method of teaching subject matter in the colleges will, however, in many cases need to be modified. If the secondary-school teacher is to relate his learning to pupil's needs, the functional bearing of his specialty ought to be emphasized during his period of preparation. A related requirement is that his specialty should be so learned as to constitute a rich resource on which he is capable of drawing skillfully in response to particular and often unpredictable teaching opportunities as they present themselves. Ability to offer systematic instruction in a subject will remain important, but a teacher who can do only this will have limited value for the secondary school of the future.

I have spoken of general education, professional education, and advanced subject-matter preparation because these categories are both logical and important. But I now want to state my conviction that these aspects of teacher education should not be treated as fully separate by the preparing college. I am of the vigorous opinion that teacher education should be thought of as a whole faculty concern. If college teachers become as sensitive to the needs of their students as whole persons as I believe they should, this problem will take care of itself. It is as deplorable, by the way, for professors of education to be unconcerned about the not narrowly professional needs of prospective teachers as it is for subject-matter men to assume that they have nothing to do with the vocational purposes of these individuals.

TEACHERS NEED FAR MORE FIRST-HAND EXPERIENCE

You will not now be surprised to hear me declaring the necessity for secondary-school teachers in preparation to have far more first-hand experience in relation to the subjects of their study than is now customarily the case. As the period of teacher-preparation lengthens, the importance of early and continuous contact with reality increases. The study of scientific findings regarding children is essential—but so is the study of children. The same may be said with respect to the community. Nor is it enough to study the child and the community merely in the sense of observation. Opportunities to work responsibly with young people and older groups must be provided. Another important type of first-hand experience that may be mentioned has to do with self-expression. Such expression may be through the creative use of words, or paint, or clay; or other artistic media; it may be through social relations in groups formed for recreational or other purposes.

The value of all this will be twofold. On one hand it will strengthen learning by making it possible for the individual to test tentatively accepted

theories in real situations. Being told by authorities will be balanced by finding out for oneself. On the other hand it will encourage spontaneity, flexibility, self-reliance, and self-evaluation. A teacher who is merely a machine, who follows rules unimaginatively, who does what is "expected" and calls it a day, cannot be a good teacher for the secondary school of tomorrow. It is essential that while he is still under constantly available guidance, the prospective teacher should be enabled to act as well as to think for himself and to learn from his mistakes as well as from his successes.

But I would not suggest that either experimentation or guidance should cease when the candidate has been graduated and been awarded a job; quite the contrary. To the importance of continued growth in service, I have already referred. That importance is increasing as the average period of service and consequently the average age of secondary-school teachers continues to rise. What is the first condition for continued growth? It is, I think, freedom to be oneself, to act upon one's convictions, to respond spontaneously to new ideas that have withstood thoughtful inspection. The secondary school of the future will be little advantaged by superbly-prepared teachers if it fits them like cogs into some predetermined machine and thwarts their enthusiasms and powers of originality.

Naturally I am not recommending a state of anarchy. I have already urged the importance of the school as a democratic society, and I had in mind the co-operation of teachers and administrators as well as of students. Every teacher needs a sense of membership in something larger than his own classroom or department. What this implies is a rational distinction between those matters that are of common and those that are of individual responsibility. The teacher should have maximum freedom in his immediate sphere; he should also share in determining the extent of that and other spheres in recognition of common purposes and available resources. It should be a primary aim for administrators to see that teachers have a share in planning, that they receive consistent assurance of their personal worth, and that they are provided with friendly guidance.

NEW TEACHERS NEED CONTINUED RELATIONS WITH THE COLLEGE

Such guidance will often involve co-operation with institutions of higher learning. New teachers ought to retain relations with their colleges, the staff of which is peculiarly fitted to help them with their early difficulties. College teachers may often serve helpfully as consultants in connection with problems of concern to many teachers, or as leaders of study groups formed to advance theoretical knowledge. Summer workshops, where teachers may go with problems arising directly out of their working situations, have proved their value over and over. Guided field courses have been acclaimed by teachers who have participated in them. The worth of more conventional summer study as well as of independent travel and work experiences outside the field of education is often great.

But the value of friendly guidance and of access to helpful resources in the school or system of which the teacher is a member is especially signi-

ficant. In the degree to which this is available in such fashion as manifests full respect for personality, the exhilarating sense of being a worthy member of a great enterprise is magnified. Responsible participation in committee work that leads to something being done is important in this connection. So is the chance to study subjects of personal concern with groups of similarly interested colleagues. (Such study groups are often combined with opportunities for recreation, artistic activities, and general good-fellowship.) A number of progressive school systems have developed local summer workshops, mainly for their own teachers and usually in co-operation with neighboring colleges or universities. Also important is encouragement of responsible participation in all worth-while community activities.

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP IS NECESSARY

Of particular consequence will be the character of the relationship established between teachers on the one hand and principals, supervisors, and superintendents on the other. If these are friendly, if an atmosphere of mutual respect is maintained, if the expert knowledge of the administrator is freely available but the teacher is encouraged to act according to his own convictions, growth is bound to be stimulated. I need hardly say that the creation of such conditions depends chiefly upon the quality of the leadership. It will, perhaps, be appropriate, considering the character of this audience, if, before I conclude, I say a word or two about leadership for teachers of the secondary school of the future. The *first* concern of such leadership, I believe, will be to release the powers of every teacher. This is a matter both of discovery and encouragement. The *second* concern will be to serve as a co-ordinator of effort, making certain that the place of the particular school in the system and in the community is comprehended and that the various internal divisions function harmoniously together. The *third* will be to contribute to the common councils knowledge and judgment that spring from superior ability and experience, but to do this in such fashion that the group members understand that they need accept only that part which commends itself to their own reason. In an atmosphere of friendliness, common devotion, and mutual respect, we may be certain that the proposals of leaders will be approached with a predisposition in their favor.

I close then, as I began, on the note of respect for personality and of co-operative action. It is belief in the unique value of personality and the organic character of society that constitutes the essence of the civilization that we are fighting to preserve. The secondary school of the future must be so constituted as to build these beliefs into behavior. The teachers for these schools must be so prepared as to be able to meet the needs of growing citizens, and to manifest through their actions the character of good members of a free society. And the school itself must provide them with opportunity and encouragement freely to use their powers as co-operating members of a great profession dedicated to the advancement of the common welfare.

Work Experience in Secondary Schools

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DEFINITION

WORK EXPERIENCE is the activity and adjustment involved in situations which are normally accepted as real work situations. It's learning to work. It's work education. For purposes of this discussion we restrict it to the in-school youth and are primarily concerned with the initial weeks or months of work during which the factor of adjustment is high. Secondary schools are those accepted as such in any area. In California they include high schools and junior colleges.

KINDS OF WORK THAT OFFER OPPORTUNITY FOR WORK EXPERIENCE

Several types of work situations providing work experience for in-school youth are available and in practice. They are:

1. Apprenticeships, legal or bootleg.
2. Business and industrial experience arranged through regularly scheduled courses.
3. Work which is subsidized, either by the Federal, state, or local government or otherwise, to provide work opportunities not normally available, such as NYA jobs. Most of this work is on the campus, but it can be off-campus, as are the public service fellowships developed in California by Tom Freeman of the NYA personnel.
4. Courses involving projects in- or out-of-school such as these of the Smith-Hughes or George Deen programs.
5. Work made available by the local board of education as a necessary part of their regular work program; such as custodial and librarian work.
6. Work arranged for the individual pupil with business or industry, off-campus, either before, during, or after the regular school-day hours.
7. Work which the pupil has secured without benefit of school assistance and which is usually carried on before or after school hours.
8. Others.

Specific jobs, acceptable as work experience, are too numerous to list. They may be in-school or out-of-school. Out-of-school job possibilities are as numerous as those listed in the government index of occupations. Schoolmen are aware of the in-school possibilities. The NYA classification of jobs for in-school youth, in the California manual is a good list, but general. The NYA has published specific lists from time to time. A list given by Warren C. Seyfert and Paul H. Rehms in the booklet, Harvard Workshop Series No. 2, *Work Experience in Education* and

published by the Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts, is an excellent one. The editors refer to the three hundred odd items therein as "suggestions."

The argument for work experience—"Four Principles of a Philosophy of Work Experience" have been developed and stated by a subcommittee of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience, under the chairmanship of Dwayne Orton, President of Stockton Junior College.¹ These principles are:

1. A program of work experience is valuable to the educational process because it makes contributions to individual development, not generally or otherwise provided by the academic program.
2. Social trends indicate the desirability of incorporating work experience in the educational program.
3. Work experience in the educational program is essential to the training of the individual for worthy participation in a democracy.
4. Work experience in the educational program will promote the possibility of individual employability and therefore increase industrial efficiency.

These principles are premised on the assumption, (1) that youth will learn to work by working, and (2) that youth in the United States are in the process of becoming workers and that they are destined to be workers. These statements are axiomatic and acceptable to normal participating citizens of our social order.

These principles suggest that long-term values and objectives to be derived from work experience such as improved citizenship, sturdy mental health, more worthy home membership, and vocational competency and security can be derived from work experience.

Some of the more immediate values or outcomes to be derived from work experience are:

1. Proper employer-employee relationships
2. Healthy attitudes toward work
3. Job regularity
4. Persistent, dependable job performance
5. An over-view of work and its implications for life
6. Job punctuality and its importance
7. Occupational co-operation of a type that is considerate of other workers
8. A desire to upgrade self to the extent that the job provides possibilities for this
9. Budgeting of total time so that work is given proper consideration in the individual's life

¹Subcommittee to state and define principles of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience: Dwayne Orton, *Chairman*, President Stockton Junior College; Earle E. Crawford, *Principal*, President Association of California Secondary-School Principals; Rosco C. Ingalls, *President* Los Angeles City College; E. A. Cottrell, *Head of School of Social Sciences*, Stanford University; and Guy W. Garrad, *Principal of Adult Education*, Kern County Union High School.

10. Budgeting of the monetary returns from work
11. A willingness to do a day's work for a day's pay
12. Knowledge of one's own place in the working group, his work rights in the group

Careful consideration of the ultimate and immediate values or objectives reveal their general educative nature, for, with little or no modification, they are common to all work. Any work experience can provide training in these factors. For such training, the work experience *need* not be identical with that of the student's chosen vocation, although for secondary-school pupils planning to go to work as soon as possible and for junior college terminal students, such a parallel is to be preferred.

From factors such as principles underlying work experience, youth needs for total living, society's need for a trained youth, and the school's function of preparing youth for adult society, the secondary school cannot escape its clear duty and full responsibility of providing work experience for its youth.

The secondary school can do this best by making work experience an integral part of its regular educational program. If it doesn't, other agencies are just around the corner waiting to step in and do it. If secondary schools continue to provide a partial in-school youth program devoid of work experience, some other agency must complete the task. And rightly so, for leadership which does not assume its responsibility should lose its authority.

Preliminary steps—Most schoolmen realize the importance of work experience and are willing to incorporate a work-experience program in their larger educational program. How can such a program be developed?

1. First of all some individual or, better yet, a group of people in a school must be convinced of the worth of such a program.

2. The next step is to secure approval of constituted authority for such a program. This may come from the principal, the superintendent, the board of education, or some other individual or group.

3. Step three is to select a man, a co-ordinating supervisor or a supervising co-ordinator to handle the program. School size and other factors will determine his time allotment, remuneration, and other working consideration. Such a man must possess certain qualifications. He must be certificated, believe in the value of work experience, be a responsible and dependable worker, and have a personality acceptable to both youth and employer.

Getting the program started—At this point the co-ordinator will take over. Some of the things that he must do are:

1. Thoroughly familiarize himself with the general problem of work experience.

2. Make a careful study of all legal considerations having to do with work experience. At the present time a subcommittee of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience is studying the legal aspects of work experience in California. This committee is working

under the chairmanship of Aubrey A. Douglas, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Chief, Division of Secondary Education.² This work will have to be done by each school for its own situation, because state laws, local ordinances and school rules and regulations are variable.

3. Make a careful general statement of the intended program, similar to a course of study outline. Such a statement should include a list of values to be derived, a general description of the program, its place in the total school program, its credit value if credit is to be given, procedures to be followed in registering, supervising, and rating, and other items that will give pupils, teachers, and employers a clear picture of the program. *

4. Make a lucid presentation of the program to pupils and teachers by printed matter and discussion, so that they will thoroughly understand work experience and the program which is to be set up in their schools.

ARTICULATION WITH OTHER AGENCIES

This is one of the most important factors of an healthy work-experience program. A subcommittee of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience under the chairmanship of Guy A. Weakley, District Superintendent of El Centro Public Schools, has adopted a program of articulation which promises to be very effective.³ Slightly modified, this is it:

1. *Functions*

- a. To interpret work experience in a manner which will promote the adoption of work experience as an integral part of education of youth
- b. To effect this interpretation through public and private secondary schools and through other public and private agencies
- c. To develop in these agencies a consciousness of their responsibility for bringing about a work-experience program involving work opportunities for youth
- d. To stimulate and assist these agencies in discharging this responsibility with such effectiveness that it is accepted by the community

2. *Methods*

- a. The articulation committee is to employ any method in the exercise of its functions which is reasonable and promising

²Subcommittee on legal problems of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience: Aubrey A. Douglas, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction and Chief, Division of Secondary Education, Sacramento, *Chairman*; Elmer T. Worthy, Dean of Men, Glendale Junior College; and M. G. Blair, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles.

³Subcommittee to articulate with other agencies of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience: Guy A. Weakley, District Superintendent, Public Schools, Stockton, *Chairman*; Walter L. Bachrodt, City Superintendent of Schools, San Jose; V. A. Dunlavy, Principal Sonoma Union High School; Mrs. I. E. Porter, Executive Secretary, California School Trustees Association, Bakersfield; Arthur F. Corey, Director Public Relations, California Teachers' Association; George Trout, Principal Burbank Evening School; and Rev. James T. O'Dowd, Superintendent, Arch-Diocese of San Francisco.

b. Since youth councils suggest great promise for the achievement of the functions mentioned above, the committee will concentrate efforts on the creation, development, and performance of youth councils (local, regional, state, or Federal). The following suggestions pertain to the organization of youth councils.

- (1) A youth council should have five to seven members. Prospective members should be consulted before appointment in order to determine their availability and interest.
- (2) Membership in the council should consist of individuals who have status in the community, a keen interest in work experience for youth, and willingness to work.
- (3) It is conceivable that some council already operating might serve as a nucleus of the local youth council or as the council itself. Normally, however, a new group will be freer and readier to develop and effect a program of work experience.
- (4) Membership could, but need not, involve representation of a large number of youth agencies

CO-ORDINATING AND SUPERVISING THE WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

Many factors are involved.

1. *Work opportunities should be found.*—The school is not concerned with more than one work-experience situation at a time for any youth. This situation may be of any type listed above. Many schoolmen think that a shop course or a business course is work experience, but such is seldom the case. Few shop courses meet the criteria of work experience *in toto*. The student needs real work experience, wages included. Any situation which satisfies the definition above is acceptable. Situations approximating real work may be necessary if real work cannot be secured. NYA jobs are excellent if they are handled as real work situations. The NYA jobs offer splendid opportunity for building a program. Their possibilities have been underestimated. A job that the boy himself has secured is entirely satisfactory. While arranging with the employer for the job, the co-ordinator may well secure co-operation for the entire program. It is at this time that the co-ordinator should establish rapport with the employer.

2. *A job analysis sheet would be developed for each job.* This may best be done in co-operation with the pupil and the employer. Included on such a sheet could be objectives, skills, attitudes, and other items pertaining to the job and the adjustment to be acquired. Also included on such a sheet should be items common to all jobs, the general aspects of work experience. This procedure will soon fall into a pattern and will not be difficult to follow.

3. *The pupil's application should be secured.* His job needs in terms of interests, abilities, maturity, aptitudes, general intelligence, and other factors should be thoroughly analyzed.

4. *The pupils should be placed by referral slip or by personal introduction.* This usually involves the employer's consent. Arrangements may be made with the employer whereby the pupil makes regular application for the job if it is so desired.

5. *Supervision of the pupils' work should be adequate and carried out in close co-operation with the employer.*

6. *Provision for ample opportunity of guidance, either at the pupil's request or on the co-ordinator's decision, should be made.* A regular office hour will assist in making guidance effective.

7. *Evaluation of the pupil's work at stipulated intervals is desirable.* A check list usually improves evaluation. Self-rating scales or employer-rating scales may be used. The regular rating scheme of the school may be used, or another, if that is not considered satisfactory.

8. *A permanent record of the pupil's work experience and its evaluation should be kept.* This should include the name of the employer, dates of work, hours of work, kind of work, and symbols indicating evaluation. If a folder is used, anecdotal data and valuation sheets should be filed.

9. *Forms for all of these procedures should be developed to the extent that they assist in conducting the program.*

10. *Transcripts or supplementary transcripts of work experience may be forwarded with other transcript data.* The schools should be ready to do this on request.

The principal may act as a co-ordinator in a small school. In a large school he may choose to initiate a work-experience program on a very modest scale and experiment with it until he is satisfied with his structure.

A program can be started with one or with a few pupils and the flaws eliminated during the experimental period. A large number of pupils is not necessary although it is desirable. Ultimately, all pupils should participate.

PRACTICES AND TRENDS

A survey made last year of work-experience practices in California high schools and junior colleges by V. A. Dunlavy of Sonora Union High School and myself, indicated that work experience in some form is a practice in most secondary schools in California, but that no definite program of work experience exists in most schools. Many principals do not recognize certain activities as work experiences, but accept work-experience activities for pupil adjustment purposes as in cases of graduation, scheduling, and the like. This survey was not very elaborate.

At present, a subcommittee on practices and trends of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience is conducting a survey under the leadership of Dr. William R. Odell of the Oakland schools.⁴ This com-

⁴Subcommittee to survey practices and trends of the California Joint Committee on Work Experience: William R. Odell, Assistant Superintendent, Oakland Public Schools, *Chairman*; Maurice G. Blair, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles; Forrest G. Murdock, Principal San Jose High School; and Barton L. Webb, Principal Washington Union Evening High School, Centerville.

mittee has formulated an interview schedule which has been sent to all high schools and junior colleges in the state. Through the Association of California Secondary-School Principals and through the California Junior College Federation it has been urged that work-experience committees be created in each high school and junior college. Many of these committees have already been formed. These committees or the principal, or both, have studied and considered the interview schedule. Interviewers then visit the school and, in conference with the principal or committee or both, assist in completing the schedule. These interviewers have been furnished by the California NYA student-work program under the direction of Ruth MarFarlane. About twenty per cent of the interviewer schedules are completed and it is planned to complete the remainder by the end of the current school year. The schedules are to be coded, analyzed, and summarized by the joint committee with assistance furnished by the NYA. The results should be ready, according to Dr. Odell, some time in the fall of this year.

Increase in work experience as a regular part of the educational program is the trend. This is evidenced by the literature and the interest that schoolmen everywhere are taking in the possibility and the actual operation of work experience.

RECENT LITERATURE

The educational literature contains many articles discussing the possibilities of work experience. *California Schools*, a California State Department publication, has carried several articles during the past year. One of the best statements is *Work Experience in Education* a Harvard Workshop Series No. 2, published by the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. *The Civilian Conservation Corps*, *The National Youth Administration*, and *The Public Schools* published by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, emphasizes the desirability of work experience as a part of the regular educational program. "The Relationship of Local Schools to Youth Work Programs," an article by the Judd Club in *The School Review* of February, 1942, makes a splendid case for work experience. The NYA is publishing articles from time to time dealing with work experience.

AGENCIES AND COMMITTEES

There are probably several agencies and committees that are working on the problem of work experience throughout the United States. The only one outside of the NYA which is an expert on work experience, that I know, is a group whose membership represent the State Department of Education, the Association of California Secondary-School Principals, the California Junior College Federation, the Association of California Public School Superintendents, the California Association of Adult Education Administrators, the California School Trustees Association, the California Secondary Unit of the National Catholic Education Association, the Cali-

fornia Teachers Association, and the California College Work Council. All of these groups are co-operating to promote a work experience program as an integral part of education.

Now, in time of national emergency, we are paying for our failure to provide work experience for all school youths. Both individual youth and society are paying. The need for workers is great. We have no time for their leisurely training. We need them right now. We cannot afford to take the time to let them learn to work by being fired from three or four jobs. The saving in time, effort and production that would be ours if youth were experienced in work, would step up our national output considerably—perhaps as much as ten per cent. That's worth a great deal to individuals, industry, business, and society today. It will be, tomorrow, and the day after. Youth needs work experience as a regular part of its educational program. The responsibility for meeting this need is yours.

A Program for Youth in These Times

FORREST G. MURDOCK

Principal, San Jose, California, High School

WORLD EVENTS MOVE so rapidly that it is impossible to interpret correctly the trend of human affairs. In this emergency, when all the resources of the American nation are being used for the one task of preserving our democratic institutions, it is difficult for us to become interested in anything apart from it. Yet there is an urgent need for careful planning of youth welfare in the years ahead. During the past several decades, the secondary school has changed its program repeatedly. Always an attempt has been to change the program so as to serve the interests of an ever-increasing number of young people who are attending our secondary schools.

Sometimes, however, this lack of interest in the thing which is not immediately at hand is a complacency which is extremely dangerous, for very often it leads to a kind of inactivity which not only produces no immediate results but also plans nothing for the future. The threat of conditions frustrating our youth is very great indeed and warrants immediate study and planning for their welfare during the critical readjustment period which will inevitably follow the war crisis.

NEEDS OF YOUTH

There are needs of youth which will require more adequate attention than they have received in the past. The following quotation from a recent Conference of the Special Youth Committee is illustrative of this need: "Opportunities are needed for actual participation in productive work prior to employment, for the development of vocational skills, and for the acquirement of proper work habits and attitudes by all youth. It is recognized that some youth may wish to develop their occupational skills by continuing their education in trade schools, business colleges, or higher institutions of learning.

"Opportunities are needed for youth to render service of economic value to the community and the nation in the establishment, maintenance, conservation, or improvement of such things as recreation areas, community planning, and natural resources. Personal service to public agencies may likewise be a part of this program.

"Opportunities are needed for more adequate programs of recreation and health building, including the treatment and prevention of disease.

"Opportunities are needed for all youth to find adequate employment upon leaving school, to have adequate guidance and opportunities for additional training while on the job, and to have help in being replaced into more desirable or suitable employment when necessary."

SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS PASS RESOLUTION

Realizing the importance of the conditions and principles just enumerated, the California State Secondary-School Principals Association in convention assembled at Oakland, California, on April 9, 1941 passed the following resolution:

"Since it is an established and fundamental policy that the State Department of Education and the local school districts of California should control and direct all forms of public education, all educational programs and plans, allocation of funds, certification of employees, we believe such policy should be continued and that such educational activities of the Federal government in the State of California should operate through these regularly established channels.

"Since there are at present operating in the State a large number of local, state, and Federal agencies dealing with the problems of youth without adequate co-ordination of efforts, activities, administration, and finance under unified state control and direction, there is urgent need for adequate study and supervision of the total educational program for youth:

"Be it resolved:

"1—That the Association go on record as expressing its concern about the need for a reconsideration of the total educational program for youth in California.

"2—That such consideration should be participated in by representatives of groups now working in all phases of youth education.

"3—That the State Principals Association, the Association of California Superintendents, and the State Department of Education establish a committee composed of representatives of all fields of education and of agencies interested in youth activities.

"4—That this committee be empowered to communicate with the proper Federal authorities to secure the allocation of sufficient funds to establish a full time commission for one year to give adequate study to the total youth problem.

"5—This commission shall be responsible for making a complete report with recommendations to the Executive Board of the California

Secondary-School Principals Association and to the State Department of Education."

Following the acceptance of this resolution by the convention, the president of the Principals Association appointed a committee to study ways and means of carrying out this resolution. The composition of this committee was state-wide, fifteen in number including six secondary-school principals, two superintendents, two county superintendents, one junior college representative, one adult education representative, one curriculum director, one university representative, and one representative from the State Department of Education.

PRINCIPALS ACCEPTED

After a number of meetings it was concluded to be quite desirable to arrange a conference in order that the committee might counsel with other educators in the state and lay consultants to determine the program to be followed in California. Therefore, a conference was called and held on the campus of Stanford University on September 18, 19, 20, 1941. Thirty men and women representing education and lay public remained in session for these three days and accepted the following principles.

"1—All youth should be in school as long as society through the school can offer them a program of study, work experiences, or training worth while to them and to society. When they can no longer profit from experiences in school or when they have attained personal competence to assume adult citizenship and economic stability, they should find and secure adequate employment to discharge their adult responsibilities.

"2—The responsibility for providing adequate opportunities for schooling and employment rests squarely upon society to be discharged through public and private agencies.

"3—Each community is responsible for planning a total youth program. Through the school it is responsible for making available a complete program of education for civic responsibility, vocational employment, recreation, health, and work experience.

"4—For youth who, upon leaving the secondary school, have not planned to continue their formal education and who have been unable to secure vocational employment, there shall be established public agencies to provide youth with productive and sustaining work.

"5—To assist in developing a feeling of civic responsibility on the part of youth, the schools should provide for participation in public service.

"6—Opportunities for work experience while in school and prior to employment should be provided for all youth. The school is responsible for the planning, for the provision and supervision of these work experiences.

"7—The school is responsible for leadership in effecting a co-operative program of agencies serving youth.

"8—A consciousness of the responsibility of society constructively to

direct the total youth program must be developed and maintained in each community. Such a consciousness is most dynamic when it is locally strong and nationally approved and stimulated. Federal overview is essential in order that a minimum program may be financed and maintained. Local control of the character and conduct of the total youth program is most desirable. State-wide co-ordination of policy and desirable practice, as well as finance, is essential."

CONCLUSIONS OF THE YOUTH COMMITTEE

The Youth Committee in session at Stanford came to the following conclusions relative to the nature of the total youth program.

"A total youth program will care for the mental, emotional, physical, and social needs of youth through a constructive recreational, study, health, and work experience program. Its success will depend upon adult participation in leadership and direction; upon the recognition of the central place the home holds in the development of youth; upon the sharing of responsibility for the program by every agency in the community which exists for community improvement; and upon the measure of successful initiatory leadership assumed by the school. It is necessary that the 'bill of particulars' in its final aspect be left to the local community. However, in the development of the program in each community, the following areas might be given consideration:

"1—*The area of work experience and vocational education*:—Work experience is defined as practical activity of value to the individual and to society which produces goods or services and which meets acceptable standards normal to that work situation. It should result in the assumption of leadership wherever the capacity exists, in being able to carry the responsibility of the job, in acquiring appreciation for the dignity of labor, in accepting the obligation of employees, in developing habits of punctuality and responsibility, and in the understanding of work in the world. This work should be normal work and not a series of unpleasant tasks of a petty and unproductive type. All youth who desire it should receive adequate vocational training to produce valuable goods or services. The responsibility for offering this rests with the school.

"An adequate health program should be planned for both in and out-of-school youth which would include the development of health knowledge and habits, proper medical examinations and care for the prevention and treatment of disease, and whatever other activities are necessary to the establishment and maintenance of adequate health among youth.

"2—*The area of guidance and placement*:—Adequate provision should be made for personnel and materials, counseling and examination, placement in gainful occupations, adequate follow-up study, retraining and replacement if necessary.

"3—*The area of employment*:—Youth are entitled to sufficient opportunities to earn their livelihood through productive work. Private business and industry should assume their full share of responsibility for making

such opportunities available. Where these cannot be provided for all youth the Federal government should provide opportunities for sustaining employment in projects of value to the nation. Responsibility for administering and financing such a program falls out of the province of the school authorities, but considerable co-operation can and should be worked out with the school for continued guidance, study, and retraining.

"4—*The area of post high school*:—Many youth will continue their formal education into junior colleges, business colleges, trade schools, colleges or universities. Since education is a continuous process, plans should be worked out for effecting closer co-operation and understanding on the part of both the secondary school and the higher institution to which the youth goes."

These areas are illustrative of the variety of activities and co-operation necessary for providing a total youth program. The program calls for a reorganization of all agencies now serving youth. The complete program should provide for the total development of youth.

Much can be said about the nature of any program which will effectively serve youth and not only cause him to become a useful part of our society but help him to want to become a useful citizen. However, we are all interested in just what procedures should be followed in creating an organization which will effectively and judiciously solve these problems that will surely come as an aftermath of the present conflict.

CRITICAL ISSUES MUST BE FACED

In this country we have established methods of guiding and directing our youth. In the secondary schools particularly, we have developed strong and effective guidance facilities. It is not necessary to shelve these and set up new methods of guidance procedure but it is essential to strengthen these facilities and adapt them more nearly to the situation at hand.

Following the economic breakdown of the last few years, other public agencies have been organized to meet the growing needs of youth. The NYA, the CCC, and similar organizations have made contributions in giving productive work experience and financial aid, in and out of school, to many of the youth of our land.

There has been much duplication in the efforts expended and although we may readily admit that much good has been accomplished, yet it is felt by a great many that the guidance and educational programs of these organizations must be reorganized and administered by the regularly constituted agencies of the school system within the individual states.

At the present writing it would appear that the NYA is attempting to control these matters and thereby place all educational services under its control. In my opinion, if this should prevail a dual system of education would be established in the United States which will defeat the basic and fundamental theory included in our unit system of education.

A fundamental policy to be followed by the United States in all of these matters should be to help strengthen, enlarge, and improve the present edu-

cational agencies within the state and not duplicate by establishing competing Federal agencies.

Procedures on the part of the Federal government which take away administrative practices from public school officials should be stopped and likewise the tendency to divert public funds for educational purposes to Federal agencies should be discontinued. These procedures if carried to their ultimate conclusion will disrupt the educational planning in our state and help to make the unit in the community and the state merely a puppet to be thrown from agency to agency or from one political party to another.

Our committee feels that this problem of youth which faces us is one of community responsibility. Youth are the product of the community homes, environment, and education. It is then the problem of the community to analyze themselves in an attempt to find a solution. The community's responsibility is to mobilize its resources including the educational, social welfare, farm, civic, employer, labor, and other groups. This is a true form of democracy in action. The program is tremendous and may need financial assistance from a larger taxing unit, but the initiative, the planning, and educational leadership must radiate from the community and the state.

The Special Youth Committee of the California Educational Associations is recognizing these fundamental facts and is attempting a program which will work toward this goal. We believe that community-planning commissions or committees should be established. We believe that they should attempt to solve their youth problems. Also, we believe that a state commission should be established. This commission should have a lay membership of fifteen or twenty people whose interests would be state-wide and who would have the power and advise with the different educational forces of the state, helping the several communities to solve their more and more complex problems.

WORKSHOP ON YOUTH PROBLEMS PLANNED

Since this paper represents in a large part a progress report of the work of the Principals Association's Special Youth Committee, I want to tell you of our most recent move. We have arranged a Workshop for the summer of 1942—June 22 to July 31—to be held by the California Principals Association under the auspices of this Special Youth Committee. Twenty-five educators will be brought together for this six weeks' conference and will discuss their community youth problems in relation to their own facilities in an attempt to work out a sensible and feasible program. An application was made to a Foundation for funds to carry on this Workshop and just recently these funds were granted. To indicate more clearly the plans just ahead, may I quote from our letter to the Foundation:

"What is the problem? Education in this country is a local and state responsibility. Many agencies in the local communities are dealing with educational problems. With the recent advent of Federal

youth agencies, with the present multiple activities of many groups at work in each community, and with the present need for careful study of ways to improve and co-ordinate activities, the common problem of every member of this group brought together will be how can we in our own community reorganize our programs of education (schooling, recreation, health, vocational training, social service, guidance, and delinquency) and co-ordinate our activities with other agencies in the community to make a more effective total progress of education for Youth."

It is a tremendous program, but its significance overshadows any passing difficulties. Our committee hopes much good will come from the Workshop this summer. The conferees are coming with a clear knowledge of their own community problems and we hope they will leave with a clearer understanding of what the solutions may be.

The problems of youth are really the problems of community living, so simple yet so complex. The solution to these problems presents a challenge to you and to me. I hope we will meet it.

Junior College Section

Monday, February 23, 2:30 p.m., Italian Room, St. Francis Hotel

Topic: PLANNING THE CURRICULUM FOR THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH SCHOOL YEARS

John A. Sexson, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, California, presided at this joint meeting with the American Association of School Administrators.

What Educational Experiences Should the Junior College Offer for American Youth?

ALVIN C. EURICH

Professor of Education, Stanford University

JUNIOR COLLEGES ARE NEW educational institutions. They are products of the period between two World Wars. In 1918, forty-six junior colleges enrolled less than 5000 students; in 1941, more than six hundred enrolled a quarter of a million. This widespread movement was conceived to serve new functions but the individual institutions developed as imitators of the first two years of the dominant colleges and universities. Gradually a dual function was recognized and terminal courses were introduced to supplement general or pre-professional college work. In California alone, the number of terminal courses increased from one hundred in 1921 to more than four thousand twenty years later. The experiences of junior colleges and the facts gathered on American youth during these two decades reveal that the dual function is not adequate. As new institutions, virtually serving the sons and daughters of all the people, the junior college must

serve broader functions. These institutions are compelled to provide a wide variety of educational experiences for American youth.

In the junior colleges as in some of the higher institutions the large majority of youth who enter do not complete two years of work. Recently under the auspices of the California State Committee of Junior Colleges, a study was reported showing that of the students who left junior colleges in 1937-38, only one-third did so as graduates. Twenty-one per cent were transfers, two-thirds of whom continued their education in a college or university and one-third went into industry to carry on work for which they received training in a junior college. Forty-six per cent of the students leaving junior colleges in this one year were "drop-outs" and over half of these left before the end of their first year.¹ Obviously the typical junior-college student does not enter a profession nor can he be counted upon to complete a full two years of junior college work; hence the efforts to provide terminal education.

BROAD AND RICH EXPERIENCE NECESSARY

But junior colleges will not adequately serve the needs of youth if their programs are pointed only towards preparation for a job or for further academic work. If they restrict to these two areas the educational experiences they offer youth, soon other agencies will arise through public support to fill the gaps. Only if secondary education generally and junior colleges particularly provide the major educational experiences youth now need will these new agencies fail to emerge.

Broad and rich experiences, however, cannot be planned or projected as ends in themselves. They have value only as they contribute to the development of students in relation to well conceived and clearly defined objectives. It must suffice for our purposes here merely to re-focus a brief summary statement of purposes such as that drawn up and accepted by the California Committee:

The junior college then is an educational institution which . . . is committed to the preservation and improvement of democratic society; to a recognition of the supreme worth of the individual; to the preservation and promotion of the maximum amount of individual freedom and initiative consistent with the welfare of all; to providing for all youth of America a modicum of general education which will enable them to feel at home in the world; to the preparation of university preparatory students for specialization, research, or professional study; and to the qualifications of the non-university preparatory student for a ready and effective entrance into the world of business and industry.²

With these general, albeit inadequate, statements of the need for junior colleges to exercise their peculiar functions, of objectives and commitments, we can proceed without fear of too much misunderstanding with a resume of the educational experiences junior colleges should provide American

¹Mohr, J. Paul. *A Study of Student Personnel Work and of Curriculum in California Public Junior Colleges*. A Study of follow-up. No. 4 of the California Society of Secondary Education of Secondary-Education Monograph Series, 1942. Chapter 5.

²Ricciardi, Nicholas and Harbeson, John W. *Principles of Junior College Curriculum Study*. Op. cit., p. 50.

youth. The pattern must of necessity be general for if a junior college is doing its job well, it will attempt to arrange a program of experiences for each student that is suited to his abilities, interests, and projected future. The judgments of any of us can only serve as a basis for discussion, which in turn may lead to an extension of the junior-college curriculum in order to provide a broader range of experiences. This is a matter of importance not only for the hours but for the years ahead; a matter that will determine in part—how large no one knows—the direction of a battered but advancing civilization.

What then are the educational experiences that the junior college should offer American youth?

Perhaps at the top of the list of initial experiences a junior-college student should have is that of *as thorough an inventory of his achievements, capacities, and interests as present-day techniques make possible*. Such inventories have long been advocated but too infrequently made. The most recent recommendations come from a committee headed by Director Grace Bird of Bakersfield Junior College. After reviewing in detail the practices in twenty-six junior colleges this committee recommends among other items:

That each junior college maintain a minimum testing program for all students which includes one reliable, general psychological examination, one recognized content examination or group of examinations, one vocational interest inventory or two alternate ones, one personality or adjustment inventory or two alternate ones.

That each junior college undertake a supplementary, experimental, placement testing program in such fields as stenography, typing, foreign language, technical mathematics, and in other fields in which previous work completed does not give an adequate basis for assignment to more advanced courses, and that as many junior colleges as can afford to do so use prognostic tests in specialized abilities, such as mechanical ability, clerical ability, etc.

That there be an extended practice of analyzing other personnel data in terms of implications for group instruction, placement, and the extra-curricular program.

That the junior college provide more adequate assistance to the student in interpreting his characteristics and the probable significance of the data assembled about him in terms of their implications for the realization of his purposes.²

These are only a few of the recommendations of the subcommittee. On the whole we must admit that they are sound, practical, and tried. Why, then, have they not been put into more general operation? Inertia, traditional practices, failure to recognize the need for trained personnel, and costs are the answers. Inertia and traditional practices require no comment. The failure to recognize the need for trained people results from an attitude developed by teachers and administrators that they have always counseled students, and that they do so without special training. They think of their many successes. Their failures elude them. The country doctor who has never heard of the sulfa drugs is undoubtedly successful

²Report of the subcommittee on the Study of Student Personnel Work in California Public Junior Colleges, California State Department of Education, 1941. pp. 33-35.

in treating many of his patients, but most of us, when ill, would, I am sure, prefer to be diagnosed and treated by a doctor who knows about and has used the new miraculous treatments.

APPRAISAL OF THE STUDENTS' CAPABILITIES AND INTERESTS NECESSARY

The argument of costs in the face of present educational practices is myopic. We permit many students, from half to two-thirds of those who are following the pre-professional courses, to register in such courses for a year or more, even though they never complete the professional training toward which they are headed. Ignoring for the moment the matter of educational soundness, we might well ask: Which is more economical, to permit the student to follow a pre-professional course for a year or more and then drop out or to spend from five to ten dollars on a more thorough appraisal of his capabilities and interests as he begins his college work, and then on the basis of evidence guide him in appropriate fields of work or study? My answer would be that the first is not only far more expensive but wasteful, whereas the second is about as reasonable a type of service as the schools can render.

Of this I am sure, if the high schools and junior colleges do not soon utilize the technical facilities and trained personnel to assist students in finding themselves, we shall have other agencies in the community doing it. In fact, they have already begun.

If it is important for the United States Army to utilize interviews; a general classification test; oral, picture, performance and written trade, and aptitude tests in order to classify and train men most efficiently and in the shortest possible time, how much more important is it for the junior colleges to assist the student at the outset in acquiring an adequate appraisal of his abilities in order that he may plan properly the course he is to follow. If a junior college does not provide such an educational experience, it fails to achieve one of its major responsibilities.

Opportunities should also be provided to develop any and all special abilities the student may have. Until recently we assumed that the school program should deal only with knowledge and the intellectual skills. Such a conception of the school's responsibility was quite adequate for previous generations of youth who had ample opportunity for other types of work that would develop motor and physical skills and strengths. The depression robbed them of those chances. The schools, moreover, did not greatly modify their program. Today, therefore, we are faced with the necessity of training rapidly many men and women in skills that are absolutely essential if we are to win the war. "But," you say, "we did not know that a total war would be upon us so soon in which they would need such skills." Do we ask the same question when teaching algebra, calculus, history, chemistry, physics, and other subjects in the junior-college curriculum? Do we ask whether the students will use the knowledge and the intellectual skills they presumably acquire in these classes? No, we merely assume they should and will. Would it not be just as logical to assume that manual

and physical skills might be used at least as much if not more than the intellectual skills? Where did we ever get the notion that man lives by intellect alone? And yet if we examine the high-school and junior-college programs we gain the impression that they were definitely based on that assumption. We even permitted anywhere from forty to seventy-five per cent of our high-school and junior-college youth to register in the straight academic patterns of work on the assumption that they were headed for one of the professions when we knew that only six per cent of all gainful workers could enter these fields.

If we learn from this war that there are many sides to man's nature, all of which need to be developed by our educational processes, we shall be laying a good foundation for the future of civilization. Perhaps we shall re-discover the value of the all-round man. In a recent issue of *The Reader's Digest*, Robert Coffin describes his father under the title of "The Most Unforgettable Character I've Met"—

He was an all-round man. He could whittle a boat for a small boy to play with and build one for a big boy to row in. He could rig a sail, shoot wild geese, and break a horse or swap one. He told stories, drew pictures, and sang songs—but he could make good hay and raise fine potatoes just as well. He built good houses and good soil and strong children. . . . He took four or five newspapers. He took the *Missouri Valley Farmer* way up in Maine. For a farmer and a fisherman he had a large library—about 2000 volumes. He was well up in Geography, Astronomy, Navigation, Politics, and Agriculture. History was a favorite with him and he liked books about big men. . . .⁴

Such characters we have valued highly, but our educational system was not and is not now planned to develop such men. Had it been, our present task would not be so stupendous. To develop such all-round men should be a major responsibility of the junior college as well as the high school. This demands not only books and libraries but all manner of shops, gardens, camps, recreation centers, art, music, drama, and dance studios—in them students should have experience in terms of the spread of their abilities.

OPPORTUNITIES TO FOLLOW INTEREST NECESSARY

In addition to this broad range of experiences related to a variety of latent abilities, *each student should have the opportunity to work intensively along the line of one of his major interests, whether it be calculus, automobile mechanics, piloting an airplane, or long hours in a photographic laboratory.* I would even say that each junior-college student ought to have the experience some time during his two years or more of work of becoming so engrossed in his major interest that he forgets to go to his next class. Such behavior might be disruptive to administrative machinery, I grant, but it might also do something to the boy or girl by way of awakening a drive and bringing about self-propelled instruction that is so often lacking.

Most of the opportunities we have provided for intensive work have been in terms of academic interests. If a student were intensively interested

⁴*The Reader's Digest*, February, 1942, p. 73.

in reading, we encouraged him to the limit of hours available; if he actually got excited about an experiment in the laboratory, we beamed approval; if he became interested in debating or dramatics, we provided opportunities to exercise his talents. But we did not grant the same privilege for work in shops, in the gardens or nurseries, or in observing the great outdoors—the rocks, birds, and trees. We assumed that such interests would be explored outside of school. If, however, we find that a boy has a major interest in one of these fields, and if he is likely to devote his life to it, why should we insist that he spend the largest portion of his time in reading or in the science laboratory? I wonder how often by following such procedures we have killed one interest and failed to develop another that might serve as a motivating force for all of his work. Clearly, junior colleges need to broaden the scope of interests that can be explored intensively.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR BROAD CONTACTS NECESSARY

Aside from the opportunities to explore his diversified interests and follow one of them intensively, *a junior college student should have the opportunity for as broad contacts with the community and with civilization generally as is possible to provide in the short span of two or less years.* Although our school programs have given considerable emphasis to knowledge of various subjects as a means of providing broad contacts with civilization, it is clear now that the schools have not been very successful with this approach. The Pennsylvania Study carried on by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching revealed that the amount of knowledge in the usual subject-matter fields possessed by high school and college students was discouragingly small. Moreover at some colleges the average student possessed less knowledge as a senior than the average high-school student.

Furthermore, the New York Regents' Inquiry revealed that the junior colleges have much to do by way of providing students with experiences that will make them more effective citizens. Spaulding² points out that the student upon leaving high school is not prepared for citizenship in knowledge, in inclination to act, or in interest in becoming more effective. Is there any bigger job for junior colleges to perform than to provide the necessary experiences for youth to develop in these directions?

Long before junior colleges were organized, colleges tried in various ways to acquaint students with their cultural heritage in the hope that such knowledge would function. For a time they offered a scattering of courses in many fields and the student was free to choose. They developed survey courses in an effort to bring together specific bits of knowledge into a broad framework. More recently some colleges developed orientation courses around broad life problems such as vocational, home-family, social, civic, and personal. From the standpoint of attaining their objectives all these plans have missed the mark. Perhaps the major reason for this is that the courses were organized by scholars and in the interest of scholarship. Unfortunately,

²Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life*. New York: McGraw Hill Co. 1938. pp. 18-27.

when we try to produce citizens with a broad understanding of the community and of civilization, scholarship sometimes gets in the way for scholars are fundamentally concerned with the minutiae of civilization and not with the broad relationships.

When you ask what experiences should be substituted for these courses, I am hard pressed for an answer. My only response is that we might extend the beginnings made in organizing the junior college as a community so that an increasingly larger percentage of students have the opportunity to take part in important citizenship activities. We can multiply, too, the opportunities for students to make first-hand observations within the community—observations of industries, of housing, of health, of the work of people in various occupations. While I was an undergraduate in college, a farsighted professor of sociology opened to me for one week the opportunity of going about the city of Chicago with a health officer as he carried on his regular duties. I do not believe any course I studied gave me as much of an understanding of the problems of a large municipality as the experiences of that one week. Those are the types of experiences I would multiply for American youth. If reading and discussions could be organized about them, an interest would grow that would not stop upon the completion of junior-college work.

Each individual student should likewise have primary responsibility for a task which will not be done unless he does it. By this I do not mean responsibility only for studying. I mean instead some contribution of the individual to the welfare of the group. Officers of student organizations now have such responsibilities. Many outside organizations provide similar opportunities. In order that all junior-college students have these experiences it is necessary for the schools to co-operate with other agencies in the community. Such experiences are essential now because youth no longer have the responsibilities at home or at work in the community that they had in previous generations. The schools, and especially the junior college, must fill this gap.

AMPLE EXPERIENCE IN THE WISE USE OF TIME NECESSARY

Along with this complete responsibility for doing a job, *a junior-college student should have ample experience in planning the use of his time throughout the school day as well as for leisure hours.* We are accustomed in our academic thinking to a week of fifteen or sixteen hours in class. Just why do we have this fixation? Is there evidence to show that students attain their maximum development when they are in class sixteen hours? If there is, I have not been able to find it. We have settled upon this number largely because early college faculties arbitrarily reached that judgment. We can well afford during this period of emergency to reconsider the entire schedule of junior-college and college work. We need, for example, to get over the notion that every morsel of information we drop during class period is so important that it must not be slighted. Nothing would help us more in overcoming this than to give the students extensive examinations at the end of a period of lectures in order to see what they retain and how

they have garbled the words we uttered. A lecture is exceedingly important to us as instructors. We get considerable satisfaction from having delivered it well, but we seldom know the effect that it has upon the students.

In view of the evidence that has accumulated during recent years we can well say that junior-college students can be given more responsibility for planning the use of their time. At Bennington College, Vermont, for example, students spend an average of six hours a week in class instead of the usual fifteen. This leaves a larger block of time for independent planning and work under direction of their faculty members. During the last two years we have collected evidence on the effectiveness of this plan. We find Bennington students devote an average of about forty-three hours each week to academic pursuits including the six hours in class. In another prominent Eastern college for women where fifteen hours each week is required in class, students work on the average of forty-two hours each week including the time spent in class. In other words, the students who are freed by their schedule devote slightly more time to their studies. As a matter of fact, they actually devote at least ten hours each week more *on their own* than under the usual plan. Of course, one cannot assume that this is all due to a six class-hour week. In addition, in a comparison of Bennington students with those of comparable ability at other colleges, they attained at least the same level of achievement, if not higher, in various subject-matter tests.

Clearly, therefore, they are not suffering in achievement as measured by the best available measures. The extent to which they develop their readiness for independent work because of this plan is difficult to judge. We have only the statements from graduates indicating that this freedom for planning while in college coupled with the extensive counseling program were their most valuable educational experiences.

Faculty members have long thought it desirable to extend the counseling of individual students but their common complaint is "we do not have time." Here it seems is a way out without decreasing the effectiveness of subject-matter instruction. Why not gradually decrease the number of hours that students spend in class, thereby giving them more experience in planning their programs and freeing staff members for much more individual work with students?

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EXPERIENCING A WIDE VARIETY OF LEARNING METHODS NECESSARY

Another opportunity that *junior-college students should have is that of experiencing a wider variety of methods by which they can learn.* Educators have long held that learning should not cease at graduation. They have thought of continuous learning throughout life and yet in most of our schools the methods that students have used most extensively are primarily those of reading, responding to questions, and working in the laboratory. These, of course, are important. They are not, however, the methods students will use most extensively after they leave the junior college. Students

should have, as already pointed out, ample opportunities for making direct observations through trips to industries, housing projects, and other aspects of the community.

Discussion is another means of learning. As a matter of fact, most of us as adults learn much from discussion. Other experiences such as those involved in problem solving, in seeing motion pictures and in listening to the radio are just examples of the ways by which we might extend the opportunities for learning. With such experiences is it not likely that the graduates and former students in our colleges will continue their learning to a far greater degree after they leave junior college than they do at the present time? Obviously we have not learned to use all of these means effectively.

The radio is an excellent example of our failure to use one of the most marvelous aids to learning that civilization has ever experienced. What happens in the average home? There is no selection of programs. The radio is frequently turned on early early in the morning and allowed to blast forth a strange mixture of noises throughout the day with no discrimination whatsoever as to what is being heard. The radio has been available now for some years. We have had time to teach youth how to use it and yet we have done practically nothing with it. We are certain students should learn how to use books because they are confronted with many of them after they leave school. And we think they can and will learn from books. Why in our present-day civilization is it not just as important for them to learn how to use the radio as it is to learn how to use books? We have not made more progress in this direction because we do not know how to teach the use of the radio. We have had long experience in teaching students how to use books. Consequently we feel much more secure in dealing with books than we do with some of these newer means of learning. If we are to make progress, however, we must experiment with some of these newer techniques. Otherwise, we shall never learn to use them and the students who are in our junior colleges and colleges will continue after they leave to misuse or not to use at all the wide opportunities that modern civilization provides for continuous learning throughout life.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EXPERIENCES IN EXPRESSION NECESSARY

Still another type of experience which we have long thought exceedingly valuable for junior-college students is that which comes through opportunities for written and oral expression. We have, to be sure, required a course in freshman composition and perhaps one in public speaking. We assumed, educationally, that after a student completed these courses he would be able to express himself effectively. The evidence from some twenty years of investigation reveals that our assumption is certainly not well-founded. Progress students make in writing and speaking in these required courses is practically negligible. As one of my colleagues recently said, "If a student receives a 'D' in freshman composition he thinks he is through with that, for 'D' to him means 'done.'" Do we not have the in-

genuity in our educational circles to devise some means whereby students will be stimulated to see the need for giving continuous attention to the effectiveness of their written and oral expression? Clearly, our requirements in English composition have not met this problem. Altogether too infrequently have requirements of any kind ever met an educational problem. Requirements are administrative devices which make us as teachers and administrators feel the problem is solved without giving further attention to it aside from the bookkeeping of checking up to see whether they are met.

A student should not be able to go through any junior-college or college course, whether it is in history, mathematics, civics or social problems, art, commercial, or any other subject without giving constant attention to the effectiveness of his communications, either oral or in some other form.

OPPORTUNITIES TO WORK NECESSARY

It is likewise important that *each student before he completes his school work have some direct contact with and experience in the world of work.* Most of us who completed our college work before the depression had ample opportunity for work outside of school hours. Since the early thirties such opportunities have been denied American youth. The American Youth Commission in its recent report on *Youth and the Future* expresses the following as one of twelve general principles bearing upon the problem of work experience:

Appropriate amounts of useful work are desirable elements in the experience of children and youth of all ages. During the years of compulsory school attendance, such work should be subordinated to the requirements of schooling. In many instances productive manual labor and other forms of useful work should be introduced into the school program as an element on a par with other major elements of a well-rounded curriculum.⁸

OPPORTUNITIES FOR SELF-APPRAISAL NECESSARY

Throughout his junior college and college course *each student should also have the benefit of appraisals of his development and practice in self-appraisal.* For the most part we have done fairly well in giving students our appraisals of their work although considerable progress still needs to be made. We have not done as well in helping the student make his own appraisals and yet after he leaves the junior college he is expected by the world outside to recognize his strengths and weaknesses and to find work accordingly. Throughout his education, however, we have provided very little opportunity for him to develop skill in appraising his own accomplishments. For the most part we have done that for him. Now we need to provide experiences that will help him develop that skill.

And, finally, I wish merely to mention that *at the close of his junior-college work each student should experience the sense of completing an important phase of his education without, of course, having the feeling of finality, and, in addition, he should experience an opportunity either to continue his education or to obtain work in which he might develop further his abilities.* The first of these can be provided by the junior college. The

⁸*Youth and the Future*. Washington, D. C. American Council on Education, 1942. p. 58.

matter of providing opportunity for continuing his education or obtaining work is a wider social problem than the junior colleges themselves can meet. They can, however, stimulate thinking in the community in order to make certain that it will be met.

These educational experiences then are those which in my judgment the junior college should offer to American youth. Youth should have the opportunity for as thorough an inventory of their capacities and interests as present-day techniques make possible. They should be able to develop all their special abilities. They should have the privilege of working intensively along the lines of their major interests. They should have broad contact with the community and with civilization generally. They should have, individually, primary responsibility for some job which will not be done unless they do it. They should have ample experience in planning the use of their time through the school day as well as for leisure hours. They should experience a variety of methods for learning. They should be stimulated to give continuous attention to the effectiveness of their written and oral expression. They should have direct contact with and experience in the world of work. They should have the benefit of judgments on the appraisal of their development and practice in self-appraisal. They should experience the sense of completing an important phase of their education whenever they leave the junior college, whether it be at the end of one semester or after two or more years. And, finally, they should have opportunities for either continuing their education or for work in which they might further develop their abilities.

This is an extensive program of educational experiences. With such experiences, well directed to be sure, American youth in junior colleges should learn to live effectively in society and to make the maximum contribution of which they are capable, whether we are at peace or at war, for at either time we must utilize to the fullest our human as well as our material resources. When at war we see this need much more clearly than during periods of peace. Junior colleges are now rapidly adjusting their programs to meet the needs of the present emergency. They are providing youth with a broader program of experiences than was ever offered through the schools. With such programs well under way we can be sure that in the years ahead the junior colleges will unshackle college and university domination. They will then meet the challenge which the late Dean Lange of the University of California so aptly stated 1917 when we were engaged in another war:

To friends. . . of the junior college, the saying "what manner of child shall this be" implies a duty-call. It is a challenge to seek and to find the best educational, and vocational guidance, in order that the junior college. . . may acquire a life-career motive thought out and potent and rooted in the public welfare, and shape itself thereby, and may learn. . . how best to fulfill its mission among and together with its fellow-agencies for making American democracy increasingly safe and sound and sanely self directive.⁷

⁷Chamberlain, Arthur N. (Editor) *The Lange Book*. San Francisco: Trade Publishing Co., 1927. p. 87.

What Are Our Junior Colleges Now Doing for American Youth?

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AS A CONSULTANT for the General Education Board of New York, I had the opportunity a year and a half ago to visit junior colleges in every section of this country. I don't know that I saw the best junior colleges or that the work I saw can be considered a completely fair sample of what the junior colleges are doing. On this five months trip, however, I became completely convinced that the potential value of the junior college to our young people is enormous; that many of the social ills we have lumped together under the heading of youth problems can best be handled by the junior college; and that some recognition of the value of two years of college work beyond the secondary school is now beginning to permeate the consciousness of the general population.

Up to date, however, the promise of the junior college has been somewhat better than the actual performance. Only one state in the union, California, is even served with fair adequacy by junior colleges. The junior colleges have frequently repeated all the errors of the four-year college and boasted of the similarity. There are few adequately trained people in the junior colleges either in administration or teaching. The facilities of most junior colleges in housing, libraries, physical education, and laboratories are not as good as they should be.

TERMINAL WORK IMPORTANT

Further, the most important function of the junior college—terminal work—has frequently been relegated to almost complete unimportance in the junior college program. This is because there has been a kind of academic respectability in giving work which paralleled the four-year college offerings; because there has been no very clearly developed technique for giving terminal courses; and because terminal courses are not successful unless integrated with community needs.

Last summer, in the junior college workshop at the University of California, one of the participants was discussing a terminal course in English she had developed for the police officers of a California city. She told how she went to the police station night after night to go over the written reports of the police officers, and how she tried to improve their spoken English without removing its effectiveness. When she had finished, one of the other participants asked her if she had succeeded in "humanizing" the police officers.

"No," she replied, "but they humanized me."

Probably more than anything else, instructors of terminal students need to be humanized; to see that people learn in a variety of ways; that all students cannot be taught in the same way; and that there is a vast need in the terminal field for teachers who can use non-book methods of teaching.

The lack of specially qualified instructors in the junior college field is exceedingly serious. I am not talking now about any lack of people with the proper degrees or educational requirements. I am talking about how few instructors there are who see the junior college as an entity in itself; who recognize that pre-professional students should be differently taught than semi-professional students; who have the human qualities to teach those who do not readily learn from books.

Another problem of the junior college is to link the work it offers to the life and needs of the community. In many places I found certain terminal courses were being given because the superintendent or principal thought they sounded like a good idea. Without wanting to be at all arbitrary, I think it cannot be overemphasized that no terminal courses should be given without study of the community or the constituency to which the college caters. Use of community surveys, advisory committees, and any other suitable means to explore needs is not only advisable but essential if terminal courses are to succeed.

NEW AND USEFUL PRACTICES

The foregoing sounds as if our junior colleges had a great deal the matter with them. Like many other parts of our educational system, the virtues of the junior college outweigh its defects. We are more interested in the former than in the latter. You are interested too, I think, in information about individual institutions which are developing new and useful practices. In the succeeding material in this paper, therefore, I am listing a number of junior college practices which seem desirable and institutions which have developed these practices to a considerable extent.

One of the *first* essentials in any junior college program is to study the community—its industrial economy and its social economy. Various useful techniques have been developed to do this and a knowledge of these techniques ought to be in the hands of all junior-college people. I know of no better place to get information on this subject than the San Francisco Junior College which has been making a special study of it.

A *second* need in any good junior-college program is to develop aptitude tests to aid in determining which students should be put in what courses. While aptitude testing is by no means an exact science, testing plus a study of previous records, plus interviews and plus opinions, give us data which is reasonably reliable. The Los Angeles City College at Los Angeles, California, and The Opportunity School in Denver have excellent testing clinics which can furnish useful information.

A *third* need, which is really a part of number two, is for junior-college people to know as much as they can about their students before they get them. This will enable the junior college to provide the proper courses in advance; guidance can be started earlier; and a variety of tests given over a long period can be used for prognosis. Bakersfield Junior College, Bakersfield, California, is engaged in making a study of its oncoming student population. The techniques it is using could well be applied elsewhere.

Fourth, if we are to succeed in giving reality to our terminal programs we must provide opportunities for work experience. Co-operative work programs can be arranged in a variety of ways. They may take the form of working in the morning and going to college in the afternoon; they may use a period like a month at work and a month in college with students working in pairs. For small institutions a "diversified occupations" program on the junior-college level may be the answer. Probably the best developed of the co-operative work programs is to be found at The Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York. A good program in Diversified Occupations is being given at the Meridian Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi.

Fifth, in giving any courses related to community needs, community advisory committees are an important feature. Such committees can be the community eyes and ears of the college. They can help in setting up courses, providing guidance for students, and aiding in placement. At my institution, Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania, we have been using such committees to advantage for a number of years. Los Angeles City College uses such committees as well as Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California, and many others.

Sixth, slightly different from five, is the development of a conscious program to use the community as a laboratory and to fit the program of the college into the various resources of the city. The junior college located in a city which sponsors great musical events is foolish not to make that a part of its own program. The art museum of the average city ought to be utilized to the full by its local junior college. One of the most interesting combinations utilizing community resources is the Savannah Playhouse of the Armstrong Junior College, Savannah, Georgia. The college uses adults in the community as well as its own students in producing its plays. The whole program is completely integrated with the community interest in drama. Thus the junior college provides the facilities and the stable organization making possible a real community cultural development.

Seventh, most junior colleges ought to offer more than they do to train girls for homemaking. Pre-professional courses in home economics do not meet this need very well. Good examples of effective courses in this field will be found in many of the private eastern junior colleges. The Garland School in Boston is a good example. Stephens College in Columbia, Missouri, is doing outstanding work in consumer education.

Eighth, much effective terminal work can best be given in clinics in which students may get individualized instruction. Many of our better junior colleges have organized clinics in a number of fields—testing, writing and speech, clothes, personality, and the like. Such clinics provide an opportunity not only for an effective learning situation, but also for excellent guidance. The University of Houston, in Houston, Texas, has developed an excellent clinic in writing. Stephens College has several clinics. Many institutions might profit by establishing clinics in fields which lend themselves readily to this type of presentation.

Ninth, many junior colleges are now using some form or anecdotal records to aid in their guidance work. Ideally, these records should be complete anecdotes revealing a student's behavior in a particular situation. In some institutions a few phrases characterizing a student are turned in with final grades in each course. These phrases can then be combined into a revealing paragraph for the use of a counselor. Such materials are not only helpful in advising students; they are also useful in getting faculty members to see their students as individuals. The anecdotal record technique is better developed at the Rochester Athenaeum than most other institutions I visited. The University of Houston has a good system of preparing grade reports based on faculty comments, and other institutions are using one modification or another, all of them valuable.

Tenth, if we are to give courses to meet specific occupational needs, then we must be prepared to place students in jobs when they have finished their semi-professional work. At Pasadena, the placement officer of the junior college has her office in the state and Federal employment office. At the Chicago Junior Colleges, the placement officer is at the college, but files duplicate cards with the state and Federal office. I think the latter system is preferable, but whatever system we use, we must co-ordinate our work with other placement offices and we must pay attention to our placement results. This means that we follow-up our graduates and in some cases offer them continuation training. Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California, is now engaged in a special study in this field.

Eleventh, I visited a great many cities where post-secondary school work was being offered; in some of these cities I was informed that the school system could not afford a junior college. Despite our present war effort which is presumably drawing on all our resources, there is still an almost criminal waste of existing educational facilities in this country. Largely, this is because we have not yet seen the possibilities of an *extended day program*. Many of our secondary schools have very excellent facilities for nearly all types of junior-college terminal work. These secondary schools start later in the morning than they need to; have too long a period for lunch; and then close at 3:00 or 3:30 in the afternoon. It would be easily possible for these secondary schools to start a half-hour earlier in the morning, cut a half-hour from the lunch period, and finish their work at 2:00 or 2:30 in the afternoon. At that time, the junior college could begin. It could run until 10:00 o'clock at night and use the same facilities. With the Federal funds which are available from the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts to pay the instructors in trades and industries, agriculture, home economics, and distributive occupations the cost of the city school system would be almost negligible. Yet cities all over this country which might develop good junior-college programs at a very small cost to themselves do not do so, largely, I believe, from pure inertia.

Twelfth, a significant element of terminal education which is largely neglected is constant evaluation of the program. When we are giving spe-

cific training for specific jobs we have something specific that we can evaluate. Furthermore, the industrial scene changes so rapidly that unless we constantly evaluate what we are doing, we very shortly are training for what may be non-existing jobs. We need constantly to evaluate the work our graduates are doing; the courses our students are taking; and the administrative procedures we use. The Bureau of Occupational Research of the Chicago Junior Colleges, Chicago, Illinois, is doing an excellent job of evaluation which I commend to all of you.

This brings me to *another* point closely allied to evaluation. Most of the strong junior colleges I visited seemed to have profited at one time or another from the use of educational consultants. The consultants were not on the staff of the junior college but they came in for periodical visits and then made recommendations. I am sure that many of the recommendations the consultants made could just as readily have been made by someone on the staff of the junior college, but the recommendations came with more force from an outsider and were, therefore, acted upon. In some cases, too, outsiders can see things in our situation we cannot see ourselves, and some consultants have a wide experience of the practices of other institutions to draw on. My recommendation to any junior college would be that one of the wisest expenditures it can make of part of its educational budget is to employ some educational expert in whom it has confidence to make a periodical visit to the institution to confer with the faculty and to make recommendations to the board. In some cases, outside consultants can be responsible for the finest kind of in-service training of the staff.

Lastly, I want to mention a general matter. Our junior colleges are doing only a fair job of training for citizenship. There are not very many vital courses in the social studies being offered, and there are not many institutions which have a really good student government system. One of the best social studies courses I know of is the one being offered at Bakersfield Junior College, Bakersfield, California. One of the few good student government programs is the one at Colby Junior College, New London, New Hampshire. All of us need to do more in these fields if the junior college is to make any real contribution to democratic living.

The foregoing indicates in only a meager way some of the interesting things junior colleges are doing or hope to do. I am sure that the institutions I have mentioned would be glad to reply to requests for information. Many other illustrations might have been used as examples and many other institutions might have been cited. The illustrations do indicate, however, that the junior college is striking out in many new directions to meet the needs of changing times and a new type of collegiate student body.

How the Four-Year Junior College Facilitates Curriculum Reorganization

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THERE IS NO INTENTION on the part of this paper to infer that desirable curriculum reorganization is impossible in a public school system in which the junior college is sharply differentiated from the earlier secondary years as an isolated two-year unit. It is forthwith conceded that in many places excellent curriculum progress is being made under exactly such conditions. If the two-year junior college is part of a system embracing all fourteen grades of the public schools; if the superintendent possesses sufficiently strong qualities of leadership to exercise control over all the units of the district; if the secondary-school and junior-college principals are sufficiently co-operative; if they are sufficiently ingenious to set up effective machinery for carrying such co-operation into effect between two independent units; and if the board of education is willing to provide the huge sums necessary for keeping this machinery going, then, under such conditions, it is reasonable to expect a satisfactory modicum of curriculum co-operation between the secondary school and junior college. This happy combination of uncertain contingencies, however, embodies almost as many hypothetical "ifs" as Kipling's conception of the perfect man and it is safe to assume is almost as rarely found. Many two-year junior colleges are separate organizations not even a part of the public school systems in which they are located, functioning under independent boards of education. Even when a part of a public school system there is frequently lacking both the machinery and the incentive for effective co-operation with the secondary school. Such conditions certainly do not foster desirable curriculum revision in the upper secondary school. Secondary-school and junior-college principals have not become famous for overcoming the obstacles to co-operation between two independent institutions.

As over against this unhappy situation, it is the thesis of this paper that the four-year junior college by its very organization facilitates and almost compels desirable curriculum reorganization. The four-year junior college is the top-most unit of a system organized on what is popularly known as the six-four-four plan. It embraces grades eleven to fourteen inclusive, which are designated as freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior, respectively. In such an organization the twelfth grade is not a senior class but a sophomore class. There is no more separation between the twelfth and thirteenth grades than between the eleventh and twelfth or any other two years of the grade span. Thus the upper secondary-school grades and the two junior-college grades are brought together under one organization functioning under a single administration.

With a good orientation program in the eleventh grade it has been universally found in the forty-one junior colleges now functioning under this plan that the eleventh and twelfth grades can readily be brought into conformity with college standards. The junior-college grades are not reduced to a secondary-school level but rather the secondary-school grades are raised to a college level. At least four major studies have been made regarding the abilities of twelfth graders to meet college standards. They have all found that twelfth grade students can do college work successfully if they are but challenged to do so. As a result of these studies and much practical experience a considerable number of standard colleges have now announced a policy as a war measure of accepting into regular freshman standing secondary-school students on the completion of the eleventh grade.

CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION NECESSARY

It will be readily apparent that the four-year junior college described above not only eliminates all the "ifs" which must be met to provide desirable curriculum reorganization in the two-year unit, but almost compels such reorganization. It could not be otherwise when the upper secondary-school and junior-college years are brought together under one leadership functioning as a single unit.

It must not be forgotten at this point that the greatest need for curriculum reorganization is between the secondary-school and junior-college years. Many studies have revealed the serious lack of articulation between the twelfth and thirteenth grades. Time will not permit an extensive enumeration of these studies but they are to be found in huge numbers in the writings of Koos, Proctor, and all the curriculum commissions of our professional organizations. Dr. Leonard V. Koos, in chapter 8 of his book entitled *The Junior College in America* not only sets forth many such findings in his own studies but also summarizes the findings of many others. *The Sixth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence which was devoted to the development of the secondary-school curriculum is full of similar studies and reports all telling the same sad story of needless waste through unnecessary and purely fortuitous duplications and overlappings between secondary school and college. The following quotation is taken from *The Sixth Yearbook* referred to above: "Leonard V. Koos reports that he found by a study of 200 students that they had repeated in college one-fourth of their high school work or the equivalent of four-fifths of a high school year, and remarks that there is all too common a disregard in college for what the student has done in high school." It will be readily admitted that marked improvement has taken place in curriculum reorganization since Doctor Koos wrote in 1928, but this development could have proceeded much more rapidly and smoothly if the grades concerned could have been under a single instead of a dual control. Any effective curriculum revision must include

¹*The Sixth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C. The American Association of School Administrators, 1928, page 146.

both the secondary school and the junior college, and such revision is all but impossible when the two institutions are housed on separate campuses and under separate administrations.

Still another fact assumes major significance as we consider curriculum reorganization on the junior-college level. According to the accepted and most approved educational theory the junior college is the capstone of our system of public secondary education. It is almost universally accepted as a part of the secondary span. It follows, therefore, that the junior college years should carry to completion the program of secondary education started in the secondary school. This is the most fundamental principle in the philosophy of the junior college. It was the principle enunciated by William Rainey Harper, Leonard V. Koos, William M. Proctor, and more recently Robert M. Hutchins of Chicago.

If we accept the widely recognized principle that the junior college is a part of the secondary-school system it follows as a logical corollary that the thirteenth and fourteenth grades should be associated with the secondary school rather than sharply differentiated from it. Its educational objectives are identical with those of the secondary school. It, like the other secondary years, is interested in laying a sound basis of general education for all students. Like the rest of the secondary school it is concerned in preparing qualified students for higher education in the standard colleges and universities. In common with the other secondary years, it is interested in preparing terminal students along vocational lines for immediate entrance into the world of business and industry. The experience of forty-one four-year junior colleges now functioning in the United States has conclusively demonstrated that upper secondary-school and junior-college students can and do mix well in social situations. There is nothing psychologically or philosophically against the union of the two institutions. This union brings the control of both the secondary-school and the junior-college curriculums under a single head and thereby facilitates desirable curriculum revision.

THREE MAJOR GOALS

In the development of comprehensive curriculums in the four-year junior college there are three major goals to be attained—*first*, the supplying of a reasonable modicum of general education to all students; *second*, the preparation of university preparatory students for upper division standing in standard colleges and universities; and *third*, the preparation of terminal students for an effective and ready entrance into the world of business and industry. Let us consider briefly the attainment of each of these objectives in a four-year junior college situation.

It is the purpose of general education to orient or adapt the student within the major areas of human need. There are certain needs of men that are universal to the human race. Regardless of race, creed or walk in life there are some needs that are common to all men—needs which one experiences solely by virtue of the fact that he is a human being.

It is universally recognized that the function of general education is to administer to the common needs of man in the major areas. Many classifications have been made by writers in the field of curriculum construction of the major areas of human need. One writer classifies the common needs of man as follows:² (a) individual; (b) socio-civic; (c) home life; (d) vocational. Another writer, working independently, has produced virtually the same classification with the single exception of listing "physical and mental health" as a separate category.³ A more recent classification⁴ states that "popular education" at the secondary-school level is defined and described as that education which seeks to increase the competence, namely, ability and willingness, of the groups of youth along the following lines: (a) to carry socio-civic responsibilities; (b) to carry socio-economic responsibilities; (c) to maintain and improve mental and physical health; (d) to engage in recreational activities. Many other classifications have been made of the major areas of human need but these will serve as illustrative examples and will also provide for us a general overview of the thinking of educators along this line. The similarity of these classifications is readily apparent.

MAN'S BASIC NEEDS UNIVERSALLY THE SAME

While not wishing to apply uncritically the thinking of educators along this line, it may conservatively be pointed out that the basic needs of man are almost universally the same and are not conditioned by racial, geographical, or national boundary lines.

In the light of popular discussion and experimentation, as well as the judgments of leading educators in the field, the writer presents the following analysis of the major areas of human need, the satisfaction of which constitutes the primary function of general education.

A. Personal.

Under this heading should be listed those needs which concern man as an individual, as, for example, the development of a worthy life philosophy which should constitute a working guide to personal living, involving the capacity and the desire to discriminate in values, and a determination on the part of the individual to appropriate to himself the good, the beautiful, and the true in the world about him to the end that in the course of his lifetime he may experience the most complete and consummate development possible of his individual personality; the development of high ethical standards; the framing of a guiding idealism; the development of capacities which serve the individual, such as the cultivation of wholesome and worthy recreational activities; the development of appreciations, as of art, music, and the esthetic contributions of the race; the development of aspirations, such as good will and the capacity to form and cultivate friendships, and many

²*Annual Report of General College*, Dr. Malcolm S. MacLean, Director, Lansing, Michigan: University of Minnesota, 1939.

³Dr. Harold F. Clark, Teachers College, Columbia University.

⁴Dr. Will French in Report to Implementation Commission, February, 1940.

other objectives too numerous to name but which have the common characteristic of applying to the individual as such rather than to society as a whole.

B. Physical and Mental Health.

Under this category should be included those needs which contribute to the development and maintenance of sound, healthy bodies, and a wholesome mental outlook. This would involve the development within the individual of regular habits of rest, sleep, exercise, moderation, and cleanliness; adequate knowledge and practice regarding diet; the effects of poisons and excessive stimulants; and the development of a balanced and integrated personality actuated by well-conceived and worthy life objectives.

C. Socio-Civic.

This category includes those needs for a co-operation of the individual with his fellows and for sharing with them the responsibilities and privileges of a democratic society to the end that he may be surrounded by the social conditions which contribute most effectively to the maximum development of his personality and the society of which he is a part.

D. Home Life.

Within the area of home life fall those needs pertaining to the harmonious functioning of the family as a biological and social unit and the individual's relation thereto.

THE SCHOOL'S OBLIGATION

It is the opinion of the writer that there rests upon the public school system the obligation of adjusting all the children of the entire population for an effective present and future functioning in each of these major fields, and that a reasonable orientation or adaptation within these major areas of human need constitutes a reasonable and practical concept of general education. He recognizes that the situation existing in each of these major areas is never static but continuously changing and a general education, therefore, must constitute the development within the youth of the country of a capacity for a continuous orientation or adjustment to a constantly changing environment. He further believes this program of general education, providing for an adequate orientation and competence for a continuous adaptation to the ever-changing needs within the major areas outlined above, can with a proper organization of curriculum be accomplished by the conclusion of the fourteenth year or the junior-college period.

In the four-year junior college the essential features of this program of general education can be attained by the completion of the twelfth grade. In many institutions general education is given through general introductory or survey courses which cut across departments and which are required on the part of all students.

The second major curriculum goal of the junior college—that of preparing university preparatory students for upper division standing in standard

colleges and universities, consists for the most part of continuing the program of general education throughout the remainder of the four-year course. Careful attention, however, must be given by the student to the accomplishment of two purposes. *First*, he must see that he has met the lower division pattern of courses prescribed by the higher institution of his choice, and *second*, he must be sure that he has met all subject prerequisites for the major. These are simple procedures, however, and with reasonable guidance failure is all but impossible.

TERMINAL EDUCATION

In meeting the third curriculum goal of the junior college—that of preparing terminal students for immediate entrance into the world of business and industry—the junior college has probably its greatest as well as its most difficult responsibility. The satisfactory meeting of the needs of terminal students cannot be accomplished short of the completion of the junior-college years. It is impossible in less time than this for the student to acquire that degree of personal development and social competency as well as an adequate vocational training which his needs require. It has been pointed out in a number of studies that industry is not eager to take the student at an earlier age than approximately twenty. This is not because of any interest in chronological age itself, but solely because the student has not enough to offer to justify his employment before approximately that time. In order satisfactorily to train the student, therefore, the public school should retain its entire population through the junior-college years.

The basic need even for terminal students is an adequate core of general education. As stated above, under a proper organization of the curriculum, this can be accomplished in the upper secondary-school years for terminal students, thereby releasing the junior-college years for vocational orientation.

The four-year junior college provides an adequate span for meeting the needs of the terminal student both from the standpoint of general education and that of vocational training. As pointed out above, an adequate foundation of general education can be laid for the terminal student in grades eleven and twelve, leaving some time for electives to satisfy personal interests. All vocational education, therefore, with the possible exception of certain electives in the twelfth grade can be moved into grades thirteen and fourteen. During these years the student devotes his entire time to vocational education. The technologic student, for example, enters the laboratories at 8:00 A.M. and remains there until the end of the day. This does not mean that he receives no general education during this period because much of a comprehensive vocational orientation is essentially general or liberal in character. It does mean, however, that this general education is given through his vocational courses and directly tied up with the student's vocational interests. English, for example, is studied by the technology student in his technical reports and the instructor consciously uses this course as a vehicle for English instruction. Mathematics is taught on the projects in which it is

needed and by the vocational instructor; art is studied in the courses on drawing and design, and economics through the course in industrial organization. This program of vocational training in the two upper years built on a program of general education in the two lower years produces a well-rounded individual possessed both of a liberal culture and a comprehensive orientation in one of the world's major fields of endeavor.

Permit me to conclude as I began with the emphatic assertion that the aim has not been to condemn the two-year junior college. The subject could not have been adequately discussed, of course, without some comparisons between the two types of institutions. I repeat in the last paragraph what I stated in the first that, under proper conditions, desirable curriculum revision can and will take place in the two-year unit. The major thesis, emphasized throughout, is that under the four-year junior college organization, uniting as it does the upper secondary-school and junior-college years into one institution under a single headship, desirable curriculum revision well adapted to serve the needs of youth is inevitable.

The three talks were then followed by questions and discussions from the floor. These were led by the following persons: Francis L. Bacon, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois; Percy R. Davis, Superintendent of Schools, Santa Monica, California; R. L. Williams, Superintendent of Schools, Lockhart, Texas.

To Members of the Association

Special plans were made to have the full proceedings of the annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, held in San Francisco, California, February 21-25, 1942, during the convention. A full report to all members immediately after the close of the convention is made possible as a prompt service to all members.

Additional copies are available at \$1.00 or at the special rate of fifty cents to members.

PAUL E. ELICKER
Executive Secretary

Second General Session

Tuesday, February 24, 2:30 p. m., Colonial Room, St. Francis Hotel

Topic: HOW THE ASSOCIATION CARRIES ON

Virgil M. Hardin, First Vice President and Principal of the Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools of Springfield, Missouri, presiding.

Measures of Maturity vs. Units of Credit

WILL FRENCH

*Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and
Director, Horace Mann and Lincoln Schools*

THE OLD LINE public secondary school measured the performance of its function pretty largely in terms of the achievement of its pupils in the subjects which they studied. It accepted such measures as good indices of the merit of its work. It assumed that if its pupils knew their subjects—"did well" in them—it was a good school. It built a whole set of practices and procedures controlling entrance, progress, placement, and entrance to college based upon its acceptance of the idea that achievement in subjects expressed in marks and credits signified the discharge of its proper function. It accepted pupils on the basis of their having "passed" the eighth grade. It prescribed a program which provided that in time a desirable pattern of secondary-school courses would be completed. It marked each pupil in each subject on the basis of daily work and written examination in each subject. It recorded a credit for each subject in which the mark was above "passing." It promoted from semester to semester and from year to year on the basis of credits earned—each credit indicating at least minimum achievement in a year's work in a subject. It graduated when sixteen plus credits in an approved pattern had been accumulated by a pupil and recorded in the principal's office. It designated "honor" students for places on the graduation program by establishing who had the highest average grade for all subjects taken. Its kind of photo-finish for close races involved carrying out the average grade to the third or fourth decimal place to determine the "winnah." It certified to college on the pattern of credits earned and "recommended" to college in case high marks in all subjects had been secured. It recommended any non-college graduate or former student to the butcher, baker, or candlestick maker more or less enthusiastically as his record showed high or low marks. It usually failed to recommend those who withdrew before graduation with a poor scholarship record even where there was almost

no relation between what it took to succeed in school subjects and on a particular job. Its whole plan for organizing and administering entrance, promotion, and graduation and its whole lay-out of personnel records stemmed from the acceptance of mastery of subject-matter as real evidence that the school had done what it was expected to do. The success of the whole plan lay in the fact that credits and units of credits were accepted by colleges, schools, teachers, pupils, and parents at their face value. They were the gold-standard of value in education and since they enjoyed the full confidence of all, the business of education was freely and easily conducted therein.

THE UNIT OF CREDIT NO LONGER RESPECTED

But all over the country today are secondary schools which no longer fully accept the idea that the discharge of their legitimate function is fully and correctly measured by the achievement of their pupils in the subjects of the curriculum even when these achievements can be rated by elaborately constructed and carefully validated objective tests. These schools no longer think of their chief function as that of preparing a few of the better pupils for college. They now accept responsibility for the education of all youth and talk of educating them for such things as social and civic responsibility, for work and worthy use of leisure. These schools no longer think that the possession of detailed knowledge even when attested to by the results of objective examinations is equivalent to or even necessarily highly and positively correlated with willingness and ability to use this knowledge, the purposes for which the democratic state supports schools. They have social and civic goals not indicated by knowledge of subject matter nor measured by its possession. They have therefore lost faith in the significance and value of test scores, of teachers' marks, and of units of credits in transacting the business of education. This loss of faith springs from two causes. *First*, schools no longer look on these marks and credits as measuring exactly what they purport to measure. *Second*, schools no longer feel sure that they measure the most important elements in the whole process of education. They therefore no longer represent a gold standard of value in education recognized by all and accepted by all as of real and unquestioned value.

CREDIT ACCUMULATION STILL THE BASIS OF PUPIL PROGRESS

Yet in all these modern schools which question these practices the process of entering, promoting, graduating, certificating to college, and even of recommending to jobs is still largely keyed to credit earning and accumulating. Few think of these credits as being really valid or reliable measures of the most important outcome of education, yet entrance to, progress through, and being graduated from school are still commonly reckoned in terms of these credits. The whole business of organizing and administering pupil entrance, promotion, progress, graduation, and place-

ment is still carried forward on the basis of units of credit which no one thinks have any qualitative or quantitative exactitude. We are still trying to conduct the business of modern secondary education in a debased currency to which no one any longer attaches any real value.

Yet at the present time there is little else for any of us who are responsible for the organization and administration of secondary schools to do. Pupils must still be entered into school, must still be passed through or out of it, must still be certificated for graduation and for college, and just still be recommended to employers. Principals of schools are not free to stop all these processes merely because they have discovered that the measures and values used in administering this aspect of education are not reliable or valid. It is a principle of administration that a practice or procedure though thoroughly discredited will continue in use until a better one is provided. School still keeps and no principal can stop using credits as the chief basis in and element of pupil personnel records unless a better foundation upon which to base these records is invented, validated, and popularized. Good pupil-personnel records, of course, now include many elements beyond marks and credits but though the other recorded items are often useful and used, yet basically the school administers pupil progress on the part of the record concerned with marks and credits. It may temper its judgment or modify its recommendations as the result of a study of a balance of the record but in the end the credit record is the *sine qua non*. If tonight someone should censor out all the credit-records on the cumulative cards of American secondary-school pupils the resulting confusion would be terrific. If the censor blotted out everything on the record but the credits most schools could still get along. Improve personnel records as we will until schools have a better way of gauging pupil-progress they will still use credits—and moreover cannot be expected to do otherwise.

THE CREDIT BOTTLENECK SHOULD BE BROKEN

It is the thesis of this article that this practice is one of the chief weaknesses in our plan of organization and administration of secondary schools and since we cannot abandon this practice until a better one is available one of our chief responsibilities should be the development of a better plan and its substitution for the present weak one. I hold that this plan of basing pupil progress upon credits in subjects taken is today's number one bottleneck in secondary-school organization and administration. It retards curriculum development; it interferes with teachers' efforts to adapt the curriculum to needs of their pupils; it develops false ideas in pupils' minds of what the real outcomes of education should be; it handicaps youth in getting jobs they should get; it needlessly retards some; it is a poor measure of promotion; it graduates on unsound bases; it certifies as prepared for college those who obviously are not prepared; it causes us principals to give poor advice to business and industry about

boys and girls who withdraw from school before graduation. It is a bottleneck which if broken will do more to permit and promote improvement in secondary education than any other single thing that could happen in secondary schools, for talk as you will of the *do* curriculum, of new purposes and functions for secondary education, of pupil guidance, of improved promotional practices, of new plans for college entrance, and of current recognition of the school's responsibility for post-school placement of youth on jobs, as long as the basic school record is one of credits earned in subjects, nothing really great and fundamental is going to happen in American youth education. I hold therefore that a major concern of this association should be to bring about reform at this point. However, before such reform can come into being, an alternative procedure must be created and tested and a new basis of the organization and administration of pupil progress, graduation, and placement be developed. The purpose would be to replace the "unit of credit" with a better measure of school progress, and to replace all administrative practices based upon it with new practices consistent with the new measure.

Such a new gauge of pupil progress should be developed in terms of the kinds of outcomes in which good secondary schools are now primarily interested. It needs to meet the demand for methods and measures of evaluation and appraisal which are closely concerned with the kinds of growth and development which good secondary schools now generally seek to effect in their youth. It should be so designed as to be useful in administration of pupil guidance, programming, and promotion, marking, graduation, and college and job placement, and if so it will revolutionize all these processes and the whole attitude of youth (and of many teachers) toward the schools' program of education. No more powerful impetus to curriculum reform and reconstruction at the youth-level could be provided than could result if pupils and teachers gradually began to realize that what was marked and recorded, what was used for promotion, guidance, graduation, and placement was not the older familiar units of credit in subject matter learned. For a good decade now schools have been getting themselves into a frame of mind to appreciate and to use new measures and methods for evaluating the results in which it is really interested and now is the time to start the research work necessary to develop and validate such measures. I believe that with no more effort than has gone into the development of our most elaborate plans for measuring our student's knowledge we could create new measures of much more significance in American secondary education than those now commonly used.

MEASURES OF MATURITY SHOULD BE DEVELOPED TO REPLACE UNITS OF CREDIT

If we assume that the all-around well-rounded growth and development of its youth toward good standards of maturity and not their possession of certain kinds and amounts of knowledge is really the chief concern in the education of American youth then any plan for measuring and evalu-

ating the success of a school's efforts will need to indicate the degree to which certain important kinds of maturity have been attained by the youth who attend these schools. For if growth and development is our concern then maturity is the goal toward which we desire to mark progress. All growth and development in the young is toward maturity. Maturity is attained when one is possessed of the structure and able to function as a normal specimen of the species to which his parents belong. The normal young of any species have the capacity to grow and develop toward what is maturity for the species. Not having yet grown and developed until they are like their adult progenitors the young are said to be immature. The human species seeks to facilitate and guide the process of growth and development toward maturity in its young by establishing schools. The function of the school can thus be evaluated by discovering how well and how much it assists the young to grow and develop toward maturity. Its success with any individual youth can and should be measured in terms of the degree to which he resembles in structure and function the best of the adult generation. The measures by which the school evaluates its total program and its success with particular youths can be gauged better in terms of the growth and development attained by its pupils than in any other terms.

Since all human adults are known to differ from each other it follows that the school is not expected to cause youth to grow into an exact duplicate of any one adult. We call individuals adult if their capacity to function falls within a range of ability possessed by normal adults, and the responsibility of the school is therefore discharged when it enables a youth to attain the level of adult maturity of which he is inherently capable. If a school knew what was an acceptable range of maturity among adults and knew where any youth's maturity stood with relation to this adult range it would know something about the success of its work. The school therefore needs measures of maturity which indicate the ranges of growth and development now accepted as representatives of good adult levels as well as the levels which have been reached by its pupils so it can know more accurately what growth and development it has produced and how much more it can be legitimately expected to produce.

BASIC MEASURES OF MATURITY SHOULD COME FIRST

Obviously, maturity is a composite representing several kinds and degrees of growth and development. This complicates our problem but does not present an insuperable one. Knowledge also is a composite but this has not prevented us from breaking it down into its component parts and constructing various ways by which to measure the possession of various kinds of it. In any particular society—our democratic American society for example—certain kinds and degrees of maturity are more highly prized by the society than are others. The adult American is different from the adult native of the jungles of Africa. The "good" American citizen is

different from the "poor" citizen in certain ways. These differences are of kind and degree and the American school is expected to work to facilitate and encourage the "good" kinds of growth and development in amounts which reach toward what is possessed by "good" adults. When the Regents' Inquiry says we should educate for "social competence" and points out some evidence that the secondary schools of New York state are not doing this very well, it is saying that there are *certain* kinds of growth and development which should be more directly and effectively sought by American secondary schools if they are to be considered successful by our American society. When Owen D. Young, Chairman of the American Youth Commission says "we must educate for work, for health, for leisure, and above all for citizenship," he is pointing out the kinds and degrees of maturity toward which schools should point. So we not only know that it is maturity in general which secondary schools are expected to help youth attain but we also have some concept of what are important elements in maturity toward which the schools should point youth's growth and development. These are the measures of maturity which we need to develop first. Others can come later. We need to use these to establish acceptable ranges in these kinds of maturity among adults. Then we need to use them to establish the range represented by youth. If the range for youth as a group falls below the acceptable range for adults then the schools have a job marked out for themselves. If the range of a certain group of youth—boys vs. girls, or city vs. rural youth, for example—falls especially low then the school begins to know with more definiteness where to concentrate its efforts. With a few measures of maturity in the areas currently recognized as important the schools could much better evaluate their present efforts than they can now when the principal and best methods by which they measure results are at best but remotely or indirectly associated with the achievement of their basic purposes and goals.

THIS ASSOCIATION SHOULD TAKE THE LEAD

To break the secondary schools of America loose from the ball and chain of the Carnegie unit of credit as a measure of the accomplishment of its task with any youth and to create measures of maturity by which to evaluate and appraise the school's program and success with individual youth and with all of them is a task which ought to challenge the best efforts of this association and one to which it might well dedicate its very best efforts in this time of national crisis. It is for this reason that I have proposed to the Executive Committee and now propose to you as an association that the Implementation Commission of this association launch upon this task as its next major project. I further propose that we seek to associate with us the leaders in other groups interested in the welfare and education of youth. The Commission of the Progressive Education Association which is now publishing the results of its Eight-Year Study is a case in point. This study strikes the last shred of respectability from the practice of claiming to prepare youth for college by having them present a certain pattern

of credits for subjects taken even when this practice is buttressed with formal content examinations thereon. It reveals that schools and colleges must use new ways of determining which youth are really ready for college. It sets out certain things that are more closely associated with success in college than any of the basic measures we have commonly used in school. This Progressive Education Association group is known to be actively interested in associating itself with us in such a project as is here proposed.

THIS COMMISSION HAS PAVED THE WAY FOR THE PROJECT HERE PROPOSED

With their findings just coming into print and their study just completed we are at the entrance of a new period when such a study as here proposed should be immediately launched. To insure fullest success it should be a co-operative study sponsored by several groups which are vitally concerned with this problem. It should be launched now so that we may be ready and able to take full advantage of the opportunity to reorganize education and educational relationships which this war period presents and the post-war period is likely to present. If we are wise enough to prepare to take advantage of the situation we can be responsible for the most significant progress in the education of democracy's youth that has occurred in our country's history. I think this project gives the association an opportunity to render service which is not only professional but also patriotic because it points toward a reconstruction of youth-education in which the needs of America for youth who are educated in democracy's ideals and processes are given the most consideration and attention that they have ever had. It is a great chance for us who are responsible for the organization and administration of youth education in America to help prepare ways and means by which the secondary school may become better able than now to do its real job of preserving, perpetuating, and improving our American democracy.

Vital Teaching Materials for Teachers of the Social Studies

PAUL B. JACOBSON*

FOR MANY YEARS it has been common practice for people who were not teaching in secondary schools to complain bitterly that the teaching in the social studies was not entirely satisfactory. It was claimed that what was known in research centers did not reach the textbooks for fifteen or twenty years. Thus, consequently, there was a "lag" between what was known and what was taught. That there has been a lag, no one who is informed will deny. That the secondary-school teacher alone is responsible, is a questionable matter. Three conditions have prevented vital material from reaching schools relatively promptly: (1) In most communities the teachers do not have access to the research findings; (2) after teaching a total of

*In the absence of Dr. Jacobson, this paper was read by Dr. I. James Quillen, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford University.

150 to 250 students in five or six classes, the teacher does not have enough energy or time to synthesize and make available for teaching the research findings which exist in the universities even though she had access to them.

I do not mean to imply that teachers should not work vigorously in the curriculum field. I believe they should and I know many of them have. But when controversial issues have been presented in the schools, individual teachers have sometimes been forced to bear unwarranted criticism from groups in the community. (3) This pressure need not be borne alone by the individual teacher who uses the resource units which are to be described immediately, if she has the backing of one of an eminent authority in each field which is covered and if the material has the endorsement of the *National Association of Secondary-School Principals* and the *National Council for the Social Studies*, the two organizations which are jointly sponsoring these materials.

From the General Educational Board, the National Association and the National Council has secured a subvention to make possible this undertaking. The National Association paid for the services of two research assistants during the summer of 1940. These assistants surveyed all printed pamphlet material and judged it in terms of adequacy and authenticity. On the basis of their findings and the deliberations of a group of eminent social scientists at the University of Chicago, a list of twenty-six problems was developed. In order to be included in this list, the following criteria were met: (1) The problem is vital in American life today, and (2) there is not available in readily accessible form a compact authentic treatment for teachers.

That such material is needed is obvious. The findings of the Regents' Inquiry in the State of New York, the concern of the principals who responded to the questionnaire of the Implementation Commission of the association, and other studies, indicate clearly and without question that such materials are needed and are desired. That the *National Association of Secondary-School Principals* and the *National Council for the Social Studies* should be concerned is also obvious. The committee which is responsible for the production of these materials include from the National Council: Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University and Ithaca, New York Public Schools; Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University; James K. Michener, The Macmillan Company; I. James Quillen, Stanford University; from the Principals Association: E. C. Cline, Senior High School, Richmond, Indiana; J. Dan Hull, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Gordon Mackenzie, University of Wisconsin (formerly Principal, University of Wisconsin High School), and the author. Ex-officio members are the Secretary of our Association, Paul E. Elicker, the Secretary of the National Council, Wilbur F. Murra, and Will French, chairman of the Implementation Commission, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. The committee held its first meeting in December, 1940. It

hopes to conclude the first phase of its activity January 1, 1943. About the second phase I shall refer somewhat later.

WHAT A RESOURCE UNIT IS

A *Resource Unit* is a storehouse from which a teacher may draw authentic material and teaching procedures and from which she may develop a teaching unit for a particular class. A Resource Unit as we have defined it consists of five parts: (1) An analysis of the problem. This is the heart of the Resource Unit and will be explained at length later in this paper; (2) a *selective and critical bibliography*. This bibliography will contain the best and least expensive material which the teacher may wish to read after reading the analysis; (3) *Teaching aids in terms of behavior*. For example, in the teaching of Migrant Labor one of the objectives may well be to make young people sympathetic to, as well as understanding of, the problem of migrants. This, of course, is only one of the objectives which might be sought. (4) *Pupil activities and teaching procedures in terms of behavior*. For convenience, these are divided by the Committee into (a) initiatory or beginning activities, (b) developmental or research activities, and (c) concluding activities. If a teacher is studying the problems of migrant labor, for example, she may well make *Grapes of Wrath* an initiatory activity to help develop interest on the part of pupils. Throughout the teaching aids there is great emphasis on teacher-pupil planning so that the problems which are of major concern to the pupils will be answered by studying the unit. These, of course, are supplemented with the questions which the teacher considers significant or critical but which were not mentioned by the pupils. Ordinarily it is thought that the developmental or research activities would require the major portion of time devoted to the unit. These activities may consist of visiting with and interviewing migrant laborers, and reading such varied materials as Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath* or the Toland's Committee Report on Migrant Labor. They will also include looking at movies, using other visual aids, examining housing facilities for migrant laborers and the like.

At the conclusion of the unit, there may be committee reports, round-table discussions, individual reports, or written papers. Suggestions for all of these are contained in the teaching aids. In every unit suggestions are made to facilitate the use of the community in studying the unit. (5) *A guide to evaluation*. The emphasis is placed on evaluating the outcome in teaching in terms of the behavior which determine the objective. For example, if one of the objectives of teaching about migrant labor is to make young people sympathetic to the problem of migrants, then the evaluation should take place in these terms. Therefore, if a pupil, after studying the unit, refers to a migrant as a "dirty bum," the teacher will know that she has failed to develop tolerance of the migrant although she may have achieved other objectives.

Subject matter mastery is not to be ignored but little attention is paid to it in the guide to evaluation. More attention is paid to the evaluation in

terms of behavior because it was felt that most of the teachers are conversant with making factual examinations over subject matter which has been studied.

THE ANALYSIS IS IMPORTANT

As has been said earlier, the analysis is the heart of the Resource Unit. In this article I am describing the analysis of *Government Finance*¹ written by Mabel Newcomer of Vassar College. This analysis, together with the teaching aids by Edward Krug of Stanford University, will be printed as the Number 1 Bulletin in the series of twenty-six. We have had Miss Newcomer's analysis examined carefully by a number of people. The tax experts say it is a scholarly document written in non-technical language which should have been written long ago but, say the experts, they didn't think anybody could do it. A number of secondary-school teachers and principals have examined the document; all of them say it is a splendid piece of work. It is written in a language that secondary-school teachers can understand and yet is the sort of technical material they have long wanted.

Miss Newcomer divides her analysis into six parts. Under Part I, "The Nature of the Problem," she explains how the average citizen is only vaguely aware of what the tax burden is and that very few realize that one-fifth of their income now goes for tax and that one-fourth to one-third may soon be required. The average citizen is also quite certain that the only real acceptable tax is the one that somebody else pays. To the economist the nature of the problem is that the present world has become so specialized that no individual can take care of his own needs. Consequently, we buy services and goods such as police protection, highways, and municipal water supply.

EXPENDITURES ANALYZED

Part II deals with "Expenditures." It traces Federal expenditures from approximately \$3.60 per capita in 1850 to nearly \$110 in 1940 (before the war expenditures really began). Miss Newcomer indicates too that taxes have increased throughout our national history, that they rise more rapidly during the period of the crisis such as depression of the war and that they never go back to pre-crisis levels when the emergency is over because the additional service is desired and needed.

To illustrate how expenditures have grown, Miss Newcomer indicates that one hundred years ago school terms were short, teachers were poorly paid, water supply came from wells, street lights were practically non-existent, fire protection was haphazard, streets were unpaved, and the government did practically nothing for health, recreation, and sanitation.

¹Newcomer, Mabel, *Government Finance*. A Resource Unit prepared for the Committee on Democratic Citizenship, sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Mimeographed. 1941.

The total of Federal, state, and local taxes today is approximately \$17,500,000,000,² an increase from 1915 to 1940 of 878 per cent in Federal expenditures, 800 per cent in state expenditures, and 173 per cent in local expenditures.³ Miss Newcomer indicates how increased urbanization has brought insecurity to many of our workers and has increased manifold the need for welfare services. Due to the automobile there has been need for increased police protection to direct traffic and a very great increase in highway costs. The government has also given service in the area of "intangibles" such as regulating insurance companies, registering securities, examining and insuring banks. Taxes have also increased because a government has replaced the individual in some areas. For example, rubbish removal is frequently a public function whereas formerly the service of private scavengers was something for which the individual householder paid. Government expenditures have increased because of improved standards. For example, the illiteracy rate has been reduced from twenty per cent to four per cent in one-half a century due, in large part, to better school services. As a consequence of improved health service, the infant death rate has been cut in half during the past twenty-five years. Miss Newcomer also points out that there are wasteful public expenditures, due principally to 175,000 overlapping taxing units, and she points out that waste may exist in some of the "minor" services whose costs are not, in general, watched as closely as those for schools and relief.

REVENUES ANALYZED

Section III deals with "Revenues." Miss Newcomer indicates that taxes are a relatively new innovation and that the medieval monarch drew his income from estates and moved with his court and consumed the produce of his estates. In Colonial America government officials were supported largely by fees received. Taxes were not then the rule, it being felt that persons who received service should receive it by paying fees. Thus the colonial governor of New York received more in fees than the present governor does as a salary. Miss Newcomer says:

In the course of time, most officials were put on salaries, and fees were replaced by taxes or were deposited in the general treasury. Part-time officers in many rural areas today are still paid with the fees they collect. This is a simple way of adjusting remuneration to time spent. But there is not always the close relationship between reward and effort that might be expected. Even in comparatively recent years local officials have been found whose positions have yielded over-generous returns; a municipal dog catcher in a Pennsylvania city making \$13,000 a year, a New Orleans tax collector receiving more than \$100,000 and a New York transfer-tax attorney receiving more than \$200,000. On the whole, the substitution of salaries and "*per diems*" is economical.⁴

²*Ibid.*, p. 6.

³*Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁴*Ibid.*, pp. 10-11.

Approximately ten per cent of the public income comes from administrative revenue, for example, from water supply, city light plant, from fees, and the like. The other ninety per cent comes from taxes. Criteria for taxes are (1) ability to pay and (2) benefit received. The gasoline tax of so much per gallon is a benefit tax as are automobile license taxes. The gasoline tax is ordinarily reserved for maintenance of construction of roads; the greater amount of gasoline consumed, the more benefit is received, and the more tax is paid. Old-Age benefit taxes are also levied as benefits, but schools and public welfare, such as relief and national defense, cannot be levied as benefits. Consequently, they must be charged on another basis. Income rather than wealth is becoming the standard and progressive taxes are increasingly being well considered. Miss Newcomer points out that it is very difficult to defend any specific progressive scale but that any rate and progression can be defended more easily than flat rates. She also mentions certain taxes for social control, for example, on war profits, on chain stores, and on the sale of oleomargarine. Such taxes do not yield much revenue. Another type, the privilege tax, such as the franchise paid by a utility or street railroad, and generally used by states, is not productive of a great amount of revenue. Miss Newcomer shows how the percentage of taxes levied in 1900 has shifted to 1940. For example, of the eleven major taxes in 1940, six were unused in 1900: the payroll tax, personal income tax, corporation income tax, motor fuel, motor vehicle license, and general sales tax. Although personal property taxes are still the principal source of revenue, it is indicated how the percentage levied on real property has declined in forty years and it is indicated how some states have abandoned it entirely for state purposes and found other sources for schools, roads, and public relief. The income tax is generally regarded as a fair progressive tax. While we as individuals may feel that the tax due on March 15 is very high, we should remember that it is far below that collected in Great Britain or Germany. In Great Britain, for instance, the exemption is far lower than here and the rate runs from 32.5 per cent to 95 per cent.

THE TAX BURDEN ANALYZED

Section IV deals with the "Tax Burden." It is exceedingly difficult to measure tax burden because approximately half of all taxes is concealed in prices, except in sales tax. Rent, bus fares, and utility rates all contain some taxes. Miss Newcomer shows the fallacy of saying that payroll tax has increased building costs 20 per cent. She estimates that two per cent would be nearer being correct. Dealers, it is conceded, may have raised prices as an excuse based on payroll tax. Thus, some taxes are shifted but business taxes cannot always be shifted. They may reduce dividends to stockholders rather than be passed on to the consumer. This is especially true of excess profits. In addition, net income taxes cannot be shifted to any important degree. Corporation tax can be shifted backward to the stockholder and not forwarded to the consumer. In the long run sales tax, payroll taxes, and

taxes on rented property always tend to be shifted to the consumer. Taxes on home owned property cannot be shifted.

Is our entire tax system progressive? It is progressive above the exemption allowed by the Federal income tax of \$750 for a single person and \$1,500 for a family. Our tax system is regressive below that point in that a larger percentage of the income of persons below \$750 is subject to tax than that of those persons above that point.

COMPETITION BETWEEN TAX UNITS ANALYZED

Section V deals with "Competition Between Tax Units," such as between Federal and state government, and between communities. For example, some cities give tax exemption to new industries to get new business enterprises. Some states, for example Florida, exempt individuals from income and inheritance tax in an effort to secure wealthy residents. Miss Newcomer says:

It is not an accident that Connecticut and New Jersey are among the declining minority of states that have not yet levied personal income taxes, a large part of these two states is within easy commuting distance of New York City. New Jersey also offers financial enterprises certain tax advantages as compared with New York. Until recently Pennsylvania offered manufacturers complete exemption from state taxation.⁵

Miss Newcomer indicates that the only remedy for overlapping tax units and competition between units is complete centralization of tax collection and she raises the question: Would this mean Federal administration of schools, highways, and relief? She recognizes that the American public is not ready to accept this possibility. In discussing the shared taxes she raises the objection:

The central government may serve merely as an administrative agent, returning the revenues to the state in which they have been collected.

These shared taxes have never been used by our Federal government, but they are commonly used in other countries, and by our states in assisting their local subdivisions. The shared tax may prove useful for relatively small sums of money, but if our state and local governments were to obtain a major share of their income in this way, the remedy would prove worse than the disease. The very fact that rates would be uniform would mean that some wealthy regions would obtain more revenue than needed while their poorer neighbors were unable to make ends meet. Moreover, the fact that the officials spending the money had no responsibility for levying the taxes from which the money came would encourage careless and dishonest spending.⁶

She indicates that grants-in-aid appear to be better; that they generally bring about centralized supervision and helpful education for local officials. Under the title of "Practical Solutions" the following statement is pertinent:

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 36.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 37.

The fact is that there is no satisfactory solution for this problem. We have organized our economy on a national scale. And the subdivision of the nation into political units will always result in an artificial division of the tax base. We want both a national economy and a decentralized government. The two are incompatible. We can have both in limited measure, but only by compromising.

The compromises that will bring a workable system are many—and the result will be a patchwork with no clear design. But if we can retain some measure of both local self-government and efficiency, the regularity of the pattern is not important. Specifically, we shall have to put up with further centralization of government. Whether this takes the form of complete central administration of some of the functions now largely in the hands of state and local government, or closer central supervision of state and local administration, is a matter of choice. We can extend the grant system for some areas and some activities; we may even use shared taxes in moderation and with proper controls. And we can consolidate local governments.⁷

This, it goes without saying, will be one great gain without any losses except to local office holders. Most of us agree that this would be a pure gain.

FISCAL POLICIES ANALYZED

Section VI considers the "Fiscal Policies in Relation to the Industrial Structure." Originally our citizens thought that one-tenth of the national income would be a very heavy tax. Now we contemplate one-fourth or one-third. So long as government expenditures come from tax sources, the effect on business enterprises is the same as though the private individual spent the money but when the national income goes down, tax income decreases and, consequently, the government borrows money to carry out its functions. These loans increase the national purchasing power and tend to affect business process. This is the theory of pump-priming in the depression. But pump-priming did not succeed:

There is no simple explanation of this failure. The probable contributing causes are many: Construction costs rose so rapidly that new building was discouraged. Wages rose faster than prices of commodities. People insisted on saving a substantial part of their incomes when business recovery required spending. The government itself pursued conflicting policies, discouraging industry by increased controls at the same time that it endeavored to spur it on to new activity.

Actually production did increase materially, but rapid mechanization slowed down re-employment and left a relief problem of major proportions. So deficit succeeded deficit, and business pursued its halting course until the defense program was well launched. In fact, the success of defense spending in bringing business prosperity suggests that the real difficulty with the original pump-priming program was that it was on too modest a scale.⁸

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 38-39.

⁸*Ibid.*, p. 42.

FINANCING THE DEFENSE PROGRAM ANALYZED

This is followed by "Defense Finance." War has usually been accompanied by inflation. When this booklet was written in 1941 the threat was probably more real than it is today. In order to prevent inflation, reduction in consumer expenditures will be needed. This may mean heavier taxes, such as in Great Britain, or through the purchase of government bonds and stamps:

We can increase income taxes substantially at both ends of the scale. Any material reduction in personal exemptions would make it necessary to collect the tax on small incomes at the source. But this can be done without destroying the progressive features of the tax. And it has the advantage of bringing the government an immediate revenue. Moreover, the tax collected at the source falls on the taxpayer while he still has the means with which to pay.⁹

Miss Newcomer also recommends the Keynes plan for a graduated levy on wages, returnable after the war. As another practicable method of reducing consumer expenditures she also recommends price control and curtailment of installment credit to control inflation. It is interesting to note that all of these measures have received government attention and all of them have been enacted into law or are under consideration at the present time.

In short, a defense program that demands at least one-fourth of all that we can produce, cannot be financed without inflation unless we use a variety of checks. But the most effective single check is probably that of taxation. Higher taxes always seem the more painful alternative at the time. But in the long run they are the lesser evil. If bank loans and higher prices are substituted, the immediate cost, although somewhat concealed, is as great as the cost of heavy taxes, and the ultimate penalty of depression is a major disaster.¹⁰

From this analysis it is readily apparent that a master has explained the intricacies of public finance without special pleading or "grinding her own ax." The hidden assumptions which underlie the argument of the special pleader are exposed and examined together with the alternatives. There is no effort to preach or to convince; merely to inform so that teachers in turn may better develop teaching units based on authentic and timely research knowledge.

PUBLISHING THE UNITS

This Resource Unit is to be published as Number 1 in the series of twenty-six which the Committee is sponsoring. It is now in the hands of our executive secretary for printing and will be available in April. With it is a special five-thousand word introduction by I. James Quillen of Stanford University on how to use a resource unit, prepared at the urgent and unanimous request of the Committee. This introduction is also to

⁹*Ibid.*, p. 44.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 45.

be printed separately and to be given away with each order of six or more resource unit pamphlets. An initial printing of six resource units: Race, Youth, Recreation, Machines and Technology, and Crime are all in the hands of our executive secretary. As members of the association you will all receive complimentary copies of Number 1. If you like it, our executive secretary will gladly supply you with copies of the others at twenty-five cents each, subject to quantity discounts. Additional units will be published during the summer; the balance will, it is believed, be available before we meet again.

There is a growing volume of demand for material to place in the hands of pupils to parallel the resource units for teachers. Your Committee has addressed itself to a consideration of this problem. While we have not matured our plans to the place where we can make a definite announcement, you can rest assured that we will not forget the problem. We expect to be able to announce substantial progress either at the annual meeting next year or through THE BULLETIN before that time.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

FRANCIS L. BACON

Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

THE IDEA OF A *Planning Committee* for our Association developed out of the work of the Orientation Commission which started in 1932. The *Planning Committee* was set up in February, 1936. A full statement of its general purpose and specific objectives was presented in the Committee's first report, at the twenty-first annual meeting. This statement was published in the March, 1937, BULLETIN of the Association. An annual report outlining the work and progress of the Committee has been published each year as part of the Annual Proceedings appearing as the March issue of the BULLETIN.

It will not be our purpose at this time to review the accomplishment to date. The necessity for brevity would, in any case, forbid a complete report. Suffice it to say that the follow-up of the association's reports on the *Issues and Functions*, the establishment of the National Discussion Group Project and the *Implementation Commission*, the increased development of the association's services, the study of youth's activities, and the relationships developed between the state associations and the National Association may be hastily named as particularly significant. Details may be found in our earlier reports.

The chief obligation of the *Planning Committee* is to look forward rather than to give a report of past achievement. In the remainder of our brief report we shall attempt to look toward the possibilities of our future accomplishment.

THE ASSOCIATION DIRECTS ANOTHER PROJECT

Today, for example, we are able to announce the newest project of our association. All of us have become increasingly aware of the fact that whatever positions of leadership our pupils may attain and whatever field of productivity they may go into, they are all fundamentally consumers. Increasingly we realize that not enough emphasis has been given to this consumership function in our educational content and methods. Therefore, to make our educational efforts as broadly useful as possible, we need to apply them adequately to the teaching of consumership.

American leadership in all areas of human activity has, in recent years, become ever more conscious of the need for the practical education of the consumer. Interestingly enough, the chief concern has been about the educational approach to the problem. The schools have sensed the problem more slowly, it seems, than has the business world where many manifestations have been seen. But school recognition has begun to develop, and a number of local school efforts have been made here and there. Adequate knowledge, effective method, and proper direction are yet lacking.

Although more has been done in this field by industry and business, here again desirable objectives have remained largely undetermined, and generally satisfactory methods have yet to be developed. Commercial organizations, designed by name as aids to the consumer, have attempted, after a fashion, to fill the breach, but these attempts inevitably have become predominantly commercial agencies rather than exemplary educational services.

Alert, broad-minded and forward-looking leaders in the fields of business, industry, and education have come to the clear realization that the problem, no matter from what angle the approach is made, is not only a basic consideration but that it belongs peculiarly to the field of education. The evidence in support of this conception grows ever more emphatic.

The philosophy of our modern curriculum points to the discovery and adaptation of new and vital materials for the education of modern youth. We have become greatly concerned in the intelligent application of this philosophy. Thus we are eager to welcome the promise of new and dynamic material.

Traditional courses, in large measure, have not only prevented the adaptation of the school to modern needs but have more significantly, perhaps, separated the school from the society about. Vitalization of the school obviously depends upon its integration with the needs and demands of current and future life. Therefore, the secondary school should eagerly accept every good opportunity to interweave the learning process with the fabric of social and economic society.

Consumership in all of its many phases would seem to offer both general and specific media for such a desirable integration. The concept of consumer education has motivated the thinking of a few educational

leaders for some time, and thus it has come into the discussions and planning of your Association. The end became reasonably clear, but the means constituted, as usual, the problem. How could it be done? Then, into the midst of the uncertainty came an opportunity as unexpected as it was brilliant with promise.

Unknown to us a group of businessmen, concerned by this same general problem of consumership, was ready to make an unprecedented effort at solution. Most of us as members of nationally organized luncheon clubs have known something of the attempt by businessmen to set up ethical standards and better business practices. Some of us have known how this desire some years ago crystallized into a national effort through the Better Business Bureaus.

Some thirty years ago business first realized the need of an agency whose one purpose would be the interest of the consumer. The idea of the local better business bureau was the result. As these local bureaus proved their worth, there came to be a national affiliation although each bureau remained autonomous. Today there are twenty-five hundred different business and industrial firms holding membership in fifty-six Better Business Bureaus.

These bureaus have never been promotional of business. On the contrary, they have been set up by business to protect the consumer in cases where public deception may result from unscrupulous or misleading representations. The bureaus do not represent any one branch of business. The membership which supports the bureaus represents all phases of business from the producer of raw material down to the retail counter. The bureaus have been asked by business always to look first at the consumer interest; and the consumers have come to expect that point of view. To these bureaus within recent years have come hundreds of thousands of consumers with their problems of consumer interest and with their consumer relationships with business.

The bureaus have given help and guidance in identifying practices that are fair and to avoid those which representative business does not condone. This experience has put the bureaus in a position to observe rather intimately what it is that has caused the consumer the greatest trouble, and what it is that the consumer might have been taught to his own advantage to avoid these problems. The bureaus have themselves provided much informative material useful in this area, for example, an explanation of the values and the frauds in the fur business. Another example especially interesting to schools is that of the Bureau's expose of the get-quick-training vocational school racket. Certain of the bureaus have prosecuted frauds of this character and driven them out of business. The bureaus represent the existence within business of a wide stratum of desire to study the consumer's problem without bias and have, therefore, become the most logical agencies of business through which to provide this needed collaboration in a manner that can be accredited.

There are no other agencies in the business world which deal so directly or with such complete independence and unbiased concern with the immediate problems of the consumer. The national organization of these Better Business Bureaus possesses in a unique way the practical and vital material which the schools need for the educational development of consumer interests.

A JOINT PROJECT ON CONSUMER EDUCATION

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, a charter member of our *Planning Committee*, and a long-time, devoted counselor, and friend of our Association, happened one day to be chatting with Howard Cool, the Director of Consumer Interests of the National Better Business Bureau. The friendly conversation of Briggs and Cool developed into a suggestion that Cool and Briggs should meet with our *Planning Committee* for the consideration of a mutual educational problem. This was done. At our Atlantic City meeting of last year your Executive Committee also considered the problem. As a result, a subcommittee met with representatives of the National Bureau. Further detailed consideration was given to the possibilities at the October meeting of your Executive Committee. Since that time a subcommittee has continued liason with the Bureau with the happy result that we are able to announce today a joint project in the field of consumer education.

As yet, plans are only in a tentative stage. There are many details which will need to be worked out. Those of us who have given much consideration to the possibilities are greatly impressed not only with the significance of this co-operative effort but with the promise of a tremendously important educational service.

It appears, as far as we know, that this will mark the first co-operative venture of this character in the educational field. We have done much talking about the need for this type of concerted effort in our American democracy. Our surprise, perhaps, is no greater than our pleasure that we find such a remarkable opportunity suddenly available.

Whatever plans are made, however large the endeavor becomes, the results which will be educationally important must be forthcoming in the front lines—from the schools in the field. Thus it will be the chief concern of your association to so direct and develop this enterprise that its philosophy, materials, and services will be of practical significance not only to you as administrators but to your teachers and, most of all, to the pupils of your schools.

Among the contemporary materials in the economic area which go into the classroom are various publications supplied by business and manufacturing concerns. Some of these are good and some are not so appropriate for school use. Too often such material is loaded with sales promotion. One of our purposes, no doubt, will be to find a way to discourage business from sending pure sales promotion into the schools as "education," and

to help the teacher recognize that material prepared by business information which does deserve attention. There is much in the reservoirs of business information which is desirable and needed in schools but is not obtainable in textbooks. Some way should be found to make the best educational use of this material. In this respect, too, our association should discover effective methods of interpretation and of evaluation.

Beyond these hastily mentioned possibilities should come a service of bibliography, of research, of curriculum organization for integrated as well as for distinct courses in the field of consumer economics. Obviously it will take much planning and detail work before the project may be set fully in motion. But within the next year a very considerable progress should be made. Unquestionably this proposal can become one the most significant accomplishments of this association.

ASSOCIATION'S INTEREST IN PROFESSIONALISM

You have already noted how our recent *BULLETINS* have been geared to the exigencies of the times. As with all educational associations, our has been, from the first and will continue to be, fully concerned with the immediate and imperative service of the schools in the winning of the war. You may be certain that our headquarters, strategically situated in Washington, will remain alert and will fulfill at all times such service as is possible. But it is imperative, too, that we enlist our interests and our plans in the peace that will surely come.

Our emphasis upon the continued professionalization of the principalship, for example, is now more important than ever before. We shall need wise and strong leadership following the dislocations of war as we have never needed it. The amazing development of the modern secondary school does not seem to be similarly paralleled in the professional leadership of its administrators. This is a challenge to which our national and state associations should mutually respond with increasing concern. Closer educational affiliations, a co-operatively accepted field program, a nationally unified effort, could lift our secondary-school leadership to a place it rightfully deserves and to within striking distance of meeting its many obligations. To such ends our plans should crystallize as speedily as may be.

Our secondary-school plans should also emphasize the concept of curriculum making as a growing, ever continuous dynamic. Blueprints and specifications in broad outlines need to be drawn for that learning and experience which should be general and for those skills and those experiences which should be specific. It is true that these designs are no longer necessarily set within a traditional framework. It is equally true that our secondary schools are as yet uncertain as to the wisdom or the accuracy of the designs which may now be in the making. Confusion in philosophy, uncertainty in method, and inadequacy in result are all too prevalent.

Only intelligent planning and reasoned action will remove these shackles to real progress and carry us forward to desirable and effective

ends. May we in closing this brief report cite your attention again to what might well be called the biblical references of this Association. In two volumes, BULLETIN Numbers 59 and 64, *The Issues* and *The Functions* of secondary education, you will find a philosophy that is pointedly directional, a planning which will give purpose to your methods and a potential whose adequacy remains unrealized. In a forward look to the good and to the bad days ahead may we appeal for a high scholarship of understanding and purpose and for a strong will to reasoned action.

The Association at Work

PAUL E. ELICKER

Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.

This afternoon you have had descriptions of the educational projects that are now being carried on by your association and plans for proposed projects. It is evident that the implications for education are truly significant in an age when secondary education can and should be continually more effective in the development of all youth.

My position here on this program is to enumerate some of the other services that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is performing in the field of secondary education.

There are two main types of services that any national educational association can and should render—personal and professional.

PERSONAL SERVICES

The many kinds of personal services grew out of the many demands by school administrators who are faced with many perplexing problems in the administration of their schools. These questions range from the new principal who is seeking a list of reference materials for the administration of an activity program in the secondary school to a request for information on a newly formed parasitical organization, national in scope, that is desirous of having the principal enroll his students in an organization such as the American Association of Outstanding Students at two dollars per student.

Life Insurance

The most directly personal service is the life insurance that association can write for its members. Group insurance requiring no medical examination is available at low cost in amounts of \$1000, \$2000, and \$3000. Other standard life insurance with old line companies is available to members.

Book-of-the-Quarter Club

The association has developed a service to members in selecting and offering to them the four new and outstanding books on secondary education each year known as the BOOK-OF-THE-QUARTER CLUB. Recognized

leaders in secondary education serve as a *Board of Review* in the selection of books, which are announced throughout the year, one each quarter, to the members and made available at a substantial discount.

National Honor Society

Another activity of the association is the creation and the management of the NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY, which now has more than 2000 chapters in all the states and is a school organization that gives recognition to leadership qualities, school service, character, and scholarship of students.

The Uniform Secondary-School Record and Personality Record

During this past year a national committee composed of secondary-school and college representatives developed a blank that is now being used to transmit the secondary-school record and personality record to other schools, to higher institutions of learning, and to prospective employers. Many colleges and universities have adopted the form and many others are using it as a part of their general admissions plan. All the colleges and universities were informed of the new blank and a large number have given their enthusiastic approval of the plan. These forms when they are widely used will eliminate the administrative difficulties in trying to supply information about the student on the many types of forms now in use by colleges and universities. Here, surely, uniformity is highly desirable.

In addition the association has developed a new permanent record form that has been most favorably accepted.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICES

Studies of the Implementation Committee

A number of years ago the association engaged in a long-range program for a better orientation of secondary education and for the main purpose of re-examining and re-stating our aims and objectives in secondary education and centering new emphasis on the vital issues that face us in our secondary schools today. An *Orientation Committee* was formed with Dr. Thomas H. Briggs of Columbia University as chairman and included in its membership outstanding leaders in secondary education. This committee after some study and the issuing of tentative reports which received consideration from leaders all over the country, published through the National Association of Secondary-School Principals the outstanding document *Issues of Secondary Education* in January 1936. The following year a second report was issued closely correlated with the first, and a step toward the implementation of secondary education from theory to practice in the report called *Functions of Secondary Education*, (January, 1937).

It was felt, however, that these two educational documents, as important as they seemed to be at the time, should not accumulate the dust of educational inertia on the shelves and tables of secondary-school ad-

ministration, and an *Implementation Commission* was set up with Dr. Will French, Chairman, and composed of twelve members of secondary schools in many parts of the country. Their work has already assumed magnitude in educational circles that is comparable to the great work of the earlier committee.

As a part of the program of implementation, Discussion Groups were set up in all states under the direction of state co-ordinators and discussion group leaders, and secondary-school administrators as never before have given consideration to the real issues and functions of secondary education through friendly and regular discussions involving thousands of principals throughout the country. This work is going on with ever increased activity, especially in some states. It depends, of course, on the energy, the resourcefulness, and the determination of the State Co-ordinator and his Regional Directors as to the real effectiveness of the DISCUSSION GROUP PROJECT in any locality or state. In some states through the DISCUSSION GROUP PROJECT, school administrators have made a real attack, with promising results, on the curriculum in the secondary schools in the entire state.

Now several outstanding publications have been issued as a part of the program of implementation. There is the publication *That All May Learn* which gives a complete analysis and evaluation and even model programs of the educational program that might be effective for that large group of students that are now in our secondary schools that were unknown to our schools in an earlier generation and during the time when the parents of these students were themselves in the secondary schools.

Another publication that has been unusually helpful to secondary-school administrators is THE BULLETIN, *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*. This is a compilation of more than seven hundred practices that school principals throughout the country thought were promising, from more than six hundred schools and selected from more than two thousand that were sent in to our central office in response to a call two years ago. These practices are classified into seven general headings such as Guidance Practices, Activity Programs, Teaching Devices, Citizenship Achievements, Non-College Pupil, Experiences with the Curriculum, and Teacher Problems.

There are numerous other publications that are all a part of the implementation of secondary education and designed to be helpful to the secondary-school principal, in a day when many conflicting demands are made upon him, and when he himself might be in confusion regarding an acceptable philosophy for our secondary schools of this day.

Other Studies

Probably among the most far-reaching and significant professional works of our association are the many studies that our association engaged in on important phases of secondary education by special grant from the General Education Board or through other sources. Some have been

enumerated today. One, not so far mentioned, is the OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT STUDY.

Through an extensive grant from the General Education Board extending over a two-year period, we engaged in a study of graduates and students leaving before graduation from our secondary schools in relation to their educational training and their future occupational interests and placement. Because of the limitations of the study, we selected six schools of various types from New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut centering around the office of the study in New York City and studied all of those who attended these schools during a four-year period. We had almost a thousand cases, and although this is a small number of graduates in comparison with the total number of students in all of our secondary schools, because of the careful selection of the types of schools and the intensity of the study, it has more than ordinary significance and meaning. What are our secondary schools doing to prepare their students for occupational life? What more could they do? What are they doing that in the light of our investigation is really wasteful and purposeless? Do secondary-school administrators have the answers to these and many other questions to the graduates and school-leaving youth from their own schools?

Some reports have already been given, and the final one appears in the November, 1941 BULLETIN, *The School Follows Through*, a study of the post-school occupational interests of youth. As a result of this critical and intensive study an occupational follow-up and adjustment service plan has been set up for all schools. Many schools are now learning about the effectiveness of their school programs through this study.

Publications in General

In addition the association publishes two periodicals monthly throughout the school year—THE BULLETIN, which is given without extra cost to all members, and STUDENT LIFE, a magazine devoted to the description of all worth-while school and student activities. It is largely pictorial, illustrating school activities and the articles are written by students of our schools. It is a student's magazine and thereby affords an educational outlet for the creative abilities of youth. It may be obtained by subscription which is nominal in cost.

These are some of the activities of your association. It has a high place in the professional circles of the nation and is represented on many of the national committees and present-day commissions that are concerned with the improvement of secondary education, and that are now considering and determining policies and practices for secondary education in war time and in the post-war period. Some of these have just been published such as *Secondary Education in War Time*, *Acceleration for Secondary-School Pupils in War time*, *American Education and the Far East* and many cation for a greater effectiveness on the lives and living of all youth for cation for a greater effectiveness on the lives and living of all youth for these times and the days ahead.

BUSINESS MEETING

President Wellwood presided at the business meeting, which followed the above program.

Francis L. Bacon, Chairman of the Planning Committee, presented the proposal for a change in the Constitution as published in *THE BULLETIN* in January and February, 1942.

PROPOSED AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION

The Planning Committee and the Executive Committee have given careful consideration the past several years to a more equitable membership fee. Several reports concerning the need for a change in the basic rates have been printed in *THE BULLETIN*. The association dues have never been changed since the founding of the association in 1917. For years these same rates gave in service a simple *Annual Report* and the right to vote at conventions. Now all members receive eight Bulletins (October-May) each year. In the past few years the work of the association and the professional and personal services given to the members have grown tremendously. The increases in services have come from the larger expectations of the members, and the association is steadily finding that more and more is expected of it. Reserves have been drawn upon heavily. Costs, in general, and paper and printing costs, in particular, are up and still rising. To maintain the influential and significant place which the association has now reached, a more adequate, regular income is necessary.

No other similar national association has dues so low; and no other association begins to offer such services for less than a \$5.00 fee. Therefore, the request to amend the *Constitution* to make the regular annual fee \$3.00 a year and the annual fee through the state associations to be \$2.00 seems to be modest and deserving of full Association support.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

ARTICLE III—Membership

Section 2. All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association and who are engaged in administrating supervision, or teaching secondary education, upon payment of the annual fee of \$3.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 3. Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, by the payment of the annual fee of \$2.00 to the state secretary.

Section 4. All other persons interested in secondary education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of \$3.00 to the executive secretary.

These amendments to Article III were adopted unanimously and will become effective as of October 1, 1942.

NOTE. State secretaries are hereby advised to make the necessary changes in membership rate in all application state-national membership blanks.

O. K. Phillips, Principal, High School, North Kansas City, Missouri, and chairman of the Board of Nominators gave the report of the Board of Nominators, which met on Monday, February 23, 1942.

By motion, duly made and seconded, the report was accepted and the slate of officers as presented was elected for the year beginning March 1, 1942.

President, Virgil M. Hardin

First Vice President, Hugh H. Stewart

Second Vice President, E. R. Jobe

Executive Committee, for three-year term, E. W. Montgomery

Executive Committee for one-year term to complete unexpired term of E. R. Jobe, Galen A. Jones

The complete list of officers and members of the Executive Committee for 1942-1943 will be found on the inside front cover page of this BULLETIN.

After a few chosen remarks by the retiring president Wellwood, and the new president, Hardin, the meeting adjourned.

Third General Session

Wednesday, February 25, 2:30 p. m. Colonial Room, St. Francis Hotel

Topic: EDUCATION FOR YOUTH IN THESE TIMES

McClellan Jones, Principal, Union High School of Huntingdon Beach, California, presiding.

What Kind of Secondary Education Tomorrow?

FLOYD W. REEVES

Director of the American Youth Commission, Washington, D. C.

WHAT KIND of secondary education will we need tomorrow? I do not think that this question means, "What kind of secondary education should we plan to have *after* the war ends?" Tomorrow is February 26, 1942. What kind of secondary education should we have on February 26, 1942, and during the months and the years that immediately follow? I am interested in that question, and that is the question that I shall discuss today.

There are important changes that need to be made in secondary education, as we all know, and there should be no delay in making them. Secondary-school youth of today will be adults during the long period of post-war reconstruction that lies ahead. Many of them may be working or fighting as adults before this war is over. My purpose today is to open up the question of secondary education for a nation at war in a world at war; secondary education at a time when no one can foresee how long we must fight to achieve victory, or when we may begin to devote our full energies to the objectives of peace in a world that must be reconstructed.

A lesson of major significance has been spread before the American people in recent times. It comes as a result of our active participation in the war. Since December 7 it has become clear that certain weaknesses in our national life—lack of co-ordination, lack of direction, delay in action, often pointed to with ridicule during recent years by the Fascist powers—are not weaknesses that are inherent in democracy. They are only weaknesses of a democratic nation which has not yet made up its mind. We are now in the process of beginning to demonstrate this difference, not only to ourselves, but to the enemy powers as well. We have set out to make it clear in terms of the only language that they seem to be able to understand.

Secondary education for tomorrow must teach the lessons that are essential to intelligent citizenship in a world at war. It must teach also those lessons that are essential to citizenship in a world of post-war reconstruction. At all times it must lead smoothly into satisfactory employment those whose formal education ends with the secondary schools.

Furthermore, it must do these things for *every* young person—not merely for *some*.

Last year seventy per cent of the young people of secondary-school age were in the secondary school. In the post-war period this percentage must be increased if we are to give reality to the American ideal that opportunity for a secondary-school education should be available to every boy and girl. Such an opportunity is not theirs now.

SCHOOL DISTRICT SIZE DETERMINED BY A TAX BASE ADEQUATE FOR EDUCATION

I turn now to a point that is often overlooked, or at least inadequately stressed, in national meetings of secondary-school educators—the mechanism by means of which secondary education operates. I refer to the organization of school districts and the financial support of schools. Why have these matters not received more attention? I think that the answer may be that most of those in attendance at national meetings come either from cities or from large consolidated school districts—districts which have a tax base large enough to support one or more good secondary schools, and which have enough pupils to make possible the organization of a diversified curriculum. Few of them come from strictly rural areas where the problems are more intense.

We tend to forget that the United States has 120,000 school districts, which vary in population from 7,500,000 in the district under the jurisdiction of the board of education of New York City to fewer than fifty people and fewer than ten children in many hundreds of the districts in rural areas. Fewer than 10,000 school districts, probably fewer than 5,000, have the tax base or the youth population needed to make possible a satisfactory secondary-school program. I shall make a guess which I think is a safe one. I am guessing that if all of the school districts of the United States were classified either as to the adequacy of their tax base or as to the adequacy of their youth populations for a satisfactory secondary-school program, almost all of those present in this audience would find that they come from school districts that are in the upper five per cent of the 120,000 districts of the nation.

We should remember that one-half of the youth of secondary-school age are rural youth. Few of them live in districts large enough to support a good secondary school and fewer still live in districts that could support a good junior college. Most rural school districts have so few pupils and such meager taxable resources that it is impossible for them to maintain good modern schools even at the elementary level. Obviously the ability to maintain an adequate program at the secondary level is even more limited.

Except in the most sparsely settled areas, the smallest local school district should be large enough to permit the organization of at least one secondary school with at least 100 pupils in the tenth grade, and a proportionate distribution of pupils in the other grades. In fact, in many parts of the country where the population is relatively dense, even though partly

rural, it should be possible to set up districts having a school population of between seven and twelve thousand with a complete system of elementary and secondary schools including a junior college. When we remember the variety of types of education that should be available to permit pupils to select a suitable curriculum, we are driven to the conclusion that secondary education would be greatly improved if the number of districts were reduced; if we had, let us say, from three to five thousand districts instead of 120,000.

Once such a reorganization takes place, state aid can more successfully equalize educational opportunity among youth. Furthermore, one of the most potent arguments against a program of Federal aid would be silenced. It could no longer be asserted that Federal funds would be wasted by inefficiently organized local school systems.

It is important that the reorganization of school districts take place without delay. It was important before the war; it is more important now, as we plan to expend fifty per cent of our national income for war activities: it will continue to be important after the war, when Federal expenditures will still be large, and local revenues difficult to obtain.

THE SCOPE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

School district organization and school finance are important aspects of secondary education primarily because sound organization and adequate finance are essential to a good school. But secondary education is not organization and finance. These are important to education, but they are not education. I shall now turn to secondary education itself, and from this point on my discussion will be limited to the scope of secondary education and the curriculum of the secondary school.

Two major trends in our national life should be reflected in the changes that take place in the curriculum of secondary schools as they prepare youth for the post-war period. These trends are: First, the decreasing number of employment opportunities open to work-seekers without experience in a normal, peacetime industrial program; and second, the increasing complexity of the adult life to which the modern generation must adjust.

Reorganization of the secondary school program to meet these needs cannot be accomplished merely by adding a few subjects to the traditional four-year curriculum. On the contrary, there must be a sweeping revision of the entire curriculum in the light of new objectives. The function of the secondary school as a preparation for college—still an important function—must be set in its place beside its function as a preparation for living in a democratic nation.

First let me define the period of secondary education. I believe it should cover the years from twelve to twenty; or if we use a scale of grades, it should cover the period from the seventh to the fourteenth grade, inclusive. This extends secondary education through the years now

designated by the term "junior college." Such an extension would make it easier for the secondary schools to cover the wide range of subject-matter required for effective citizenship training and would, at the same time, keep large numbers of young people out of the labor market for a somewhat longer period than at present.

CONTINUED TRAINING IN READING NECESSARY

In the reorganization of the secondary-school curriculum the inclusion of continued instruction in reading, the basic tool of learning, is a matter of major importance. Reading is a skill that is important not only for its use in later life, but also because of its close relationship to practically every other phase of the educative process. The relation of reading to our war effort is not unimportant. Thousands of men have been placed in class I-B by the Selective Service, other thousands have been unable to secure jobs in war industries, and an even larger number are making less than their potential contribution, simply because they cannot read, or cannot read well enough to secure advancement.

I think it is safe to say that there is now fairly general recognition of the fact that reading is not a simple skill, to be completely mastered in the elementary grades. At the same time it must be admitted that instruction in reading at the secondary-school level receives little attention, and corrective steps for overcoming individual defects have been slow and halting. At the very least, provision should be made in the secondary school for determining the degree of reading skill which each pupil has attained, and when it is found that this attainment is below standard, individual counseling should seek out the cause and the school should offer guidance and assistance in the cure.

One of the most common difficulties in the mastery of the more complex reading skills is, of course, the transfer of slow and clumsy habits of oral reading to silent reading. Where this occurs, we have the familiar situation of the pupil who fails in other subjects simply because of his inability to get through the reading matter involved. This kind of difficulty is serious to the individual concerned, but its correction is relatively easy, and reading experts know how to bring it about.

Not so simple a matter is the correction of regular classroom practices which hamper the development of proper reading habits in a whole group. I am thinking of the extent to which reading in school is limited to highly condensed textbooks which pupils learn practically by rote—and remember long enough to repeat back in examinations. This type of activity, which still goes on in many secondary schools, is not well suited to later contact with the newspapers and magazines that make up such a large share of adult reading-matter. It is wasteful of the eager curiosity of young minds.

Young people at the secondary-school level need not be encouraged to range freely over many fields of knowledge through wide reading of books. They should be taught how to use general reference books and how

to seek out supplementary information. Above all, in this day of high-powered propaganda, they need to be trained to recognize the signs of biased writing. They should then weigh such writing instead of assuming unthinkingly that "because it's in print, it's true."

To teach reading in this way is not easy. It calls for imagination and skill, and demands more in the way of individual attention than was given in the old days. Nor will the best of teaching work a miracle with every pupil. There will always be some whose interests lie in other directions. But for the majority, a genuine mastery of the reading skills will enrich every other phase of the educational process, in school, and later when it is self-directed. Responsible guidance and instruction to that end should be provided in the secondary school.

WORK EXPERIENCE NECESSARY

Another aspect of education which must receive increasing attention in the secondary-school curriculum is work experience. The early education laws of the colonies required parents to see to it that their children received training not only in reading but also in some useful work. In the frontier economy of those days, it was frequently easier to provide work experience than to provide reading, but the importance of both was understood. Today, the situation for many is reversed. During recent years more young people have been denied the opportunity of work as an educational experience than have been kept from the classroom. This is partly the result of the shift from an agricultural to an industrial economy.

City life simply does not provide the type of opportunity for beginning work experience as part of the family unit, although such opportunity is still found to some degree in rural communities. But a more important factor is the failure of most schools to recognize the positive educational values associated with work experience. However, it has been recognized that youthful energies formerly used up in work must be directed to other channels, so programs of organized play have been devised in an attempt to meet this need. It has been seen that young people need training in some of the simple skills, so schools that have been able to afford the necessary equipment have introduced programs of vocational education. What has *not* been generally appreciated is the importance of realistic work experience as a focus for the development of adult habits of life.

The opportunity for schools to provide work experience is limited, even under the most favorable circumstances, but it is not so limited as seems to be indicated by the small number of schools that make provision for it. Community programs of civic betterment offer some opportunities that may be accompanied by citizenship training as well. Special arrangements for part-time work may sometimes be worked out with interested employers. Where such opportunities exist, they should be used to the fullest degree; certainly such opportunities exist more frequently than they have been used.

For the most part, however, the responsibility of the secondary schools for providing youth with opportunity for work experience must be met by giving increased emphasis in the upper grades to a curriculum which leads naturally into full-time employment. Occupational information that is abreast of actual employment opportunities should be available to every pupil and careful counseling should help interpret this information in terms of individual ability and interest. Finally, for those whose formal education ends somewhere within the secondary-school period, co-operative relationships between school authorities and placement officials should be utilized whenever possible to facilitate the shift from the classroom to the grown-up world.

YOUTH AND THE FUTURE

I shall digress a little here to say something about the responsibilities of that grown-up world toward the young person just out of school. I believe, as the American Youth Commission¹ has stated, that it is the obligation of adult society to see to it that an opportunity for employment is available to every young person within a reasonable time after leaving school. So far as possible, this opportunity should be provided through the regular channels of private and public employment. But when this is not possible, programs of public work must take up the slack. It is absolutely unthinkable for us to repeat in the post-war period those mistakes of the recent depression—letting a large part of a generation of youth literally “rust-out” for lack of any kind of constructive occupation.

We know from experience that the young work-seeker is under certain special handicaps which make it difficult for him to compete with adult workers on equal terms in the labor market. In private enterprise, his lack of experience, and the seniority rights of older workers, count against him. In public work programs of the WPA type, the standards of “need” generally applied frequently limit employment opportunity to heads of families, thus providing no place for youth.

Believing as I do in these two things—the right of every young person not in school to full-time employment, and the need for special attention to the problem of beginning employment—I find it impossible to agree with the attitude, expressed in a recent report of the Educational Policies commission, that the programs of the NYA and the CCC should be discontinued as soon as their emergency assignment of training for war-time industry is completed. I cannot help but wonder if that recommendation was not based upon a fear that these programs constitute a threat to the existing educational system. If so, it seems to me to be incredibly short sighted.

The report of the Educational Policies Commission dwells upon the occasional difficulties which arose between the schools and the work

¹American Youth Commission, *Youth and the Future* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1942), 315 pp.

agencies in their initial stages. It does not stress the fact, however, that the schools were unprepared to assume the necessary educational aspects of the program. Also it completely ignores the fact that both the out-of-school work projects of the NYA and the program of the CCC are *primarily* employment programs for youth who have left the schools. It is true that these programs are multiple purpose in nature. Their objectives include employment with wages, training, guidance, and health. But their major purpose is employment. Quite rightly, therefore, they have been placed outside the jurisdiction of the schools.

A genuine regard for the interests of young people will require the continuance of youth-work programs on a permanent basis under a unified youth-work administration. It seems almost certain that such a program will be needed after the war to absorb large numbers of those who leave school between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one. At that time, when a large number of workers will be released for war-time occupations to compete with oncoming youth for employment in the peacetime labor market, youth will have a difficult time unless adequate opportunity for public work is provided.

I have taken time to emphasize this matter of youth employment because I think it is related in a very important way to what we are discussing—secondary education tomorrow. Until the employment problem is solved, much of the value of the educational program goes to waste. Once this problem is solved, the way is open for the full participation of youth in the democratic life of the nation.

MORE ATTENTION TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES NECESSARY

I shall now turn back to the curriculum, and particularly to the field of the social sciences.

The months leading up to our involvement in the second world war taught us how important it is for all of the people in a democratic country to have some understanding of economic and international affairs. Time after time, urgent measures of defense were bogged down by the failure of large groups of people to appreciate the significance of what was happening. To what extent was our educational system at fault for this situation? I do not think it is possible to assess any particular portion of blame, but it is certainly true that inadequate attention has been given in the secondary schools to many aspects of the social sciences, especially the integration of national and international policies.

An understanding of international affairs depends upon a knowledge of the life of other nations: a broad background of economic history and economic geography; a knowledge of the operation of other governments; and an understanding of the national psychology of other peoples, a satisfactory reconstruction of the post-war world will not be possible unless our citizens who elect representatives to the Congress of the United States as

well as our chief executive officers, have more information on these matters than they have ever had in the past: What is the relationship between rubber, tin, and war? Between the products of mines, mills, farms, and forests and the destiny of nations? How do trade barriers affect the living standards of peoples? What have economic history and economic geography to teach us on these matters? These are all questions that must be dealt with by the secondary schools of tomorrow.

Admittedly, there are difficulties to be overcome. It is not easy to put the objectives of democratic living in terms that are meaningful to the adolescent mind. Also, special problems arise because of the controversial nature of many of the subjects that must be discussed for a realistic understanding of modern life. Isolationism, tariff and trade treaties, collective bargaining, federal housing, and tax policies are all subjects of political as well as economic importance. Teachers who try to interpret these and similar phases of activity to their students run the risk of encountering such obstacles as the famous "red rider" applied by Congress to teachers in the District of Columbia. But no one who considers the nature of the post-war world in which young people will live can deny the importance of giving to every youth some understanding of the forces that will be at work. History and geography must be taught with an eye on their economic implications. American government must be studied with knowledge of the pressures which shape it. This type of education cannot be provided by teachers working as individuals; it requires a major reorganization of the curriculum and preparation of new teaching materials.

HEALTH AND PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

I shall now comment briefly upon the problem of health and personal adjustment, a problem requiring increased attention by the secondary schools.

Physical examinations in schools must be thorough and more frequent than is now generally the practice, and there should be effective follow-up remedial programs to make them worth while. The opportunity which is presented to the schools in this field is so great in terms of long-time results that it becomes an inexcusable social waste to let it pass at any time. Under war conditions it is especially important that schools emphasize programs of physical fitness for their pupils, and lend their facilities for similar programs for adults. This is imperative. We must face the unwelcome truth that during the first draft almost fifty per cent of our young men were refused by the army because of physical or mental disabilities.

Lessons in preparation for family life must supplement the opportunities for home instruction in such subjects as child care, cooking, sewing, and household management. As the schools have always opened the door to new knowledge, so they must assume the responsibility of keeping youth abreast of the innumerable advances in the technology of

homemaking. There is evidence that young people today look to the schools for advice and guidance to prepare them for the more personal problems of marriage. There has been much controversy about this matter, but I believe that the demand for such a program will steadily increase. The schools must be prepared to meet this demand with careful, intelligent teaching. In instances where classroom discussion or lectures seem undesirable, reading materials for pupils and for parents will be found useful as a means of securing proper instruction.

THE PROBLEM OF RECREATION IS CLOSELY RELATED TO
HEALTH AND PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

The secondary school, the last contact with formal education for a majority of our population, bears a large responsibility for shaping the leisure-time habits of the nation. During recent years the secondary schools have, in this respect, often reflected the faults of "Collegiate" life. Many of their extracurriculum activities have been limited to pupils supplied with plenty of spending money who could buy the supplies necessary for golf, tennis, swimming, and other individualized sports. "Varsity" basketball and football, featuring limited numbers of active participants, have predominated over intra-mural sports in which larger numbers could take part.

Failure to train for use of leisure time is to overlook entirely one of the most important features of modern life. I refer to the increasing industrialization of our civilization and the resulting effect on thousands of people who find in their jobs a certain amount of focus for their lives but who still feel the lack of an outlet for their creative impulse. This lack cannot be met by passive forms of leisure-time activity. There must be something else to *do*, if the creative impulse is not to be frustrated.

One of the most satisfactory answers to that urge is activity in some form of the arts and crafts. This is evident in the number of men and women who flock to the workshops that exist in some of our larger cities where anyone who can afford the nominal fees may go and indulge his hobby—furniture-making, leatherwork, hand-made jewelry, and so on. Yet the bulk of school training in this field comes in the elementary years and is dismissed in the upper grades as "kid stuff."

The creative urge may also take the form of participation in community affairs. An important contribution to the strength of our democracy can be made by the secondary schools in stimulating young people to make this their extracurriculum activity in adult life. This can be done if the schools make an effort to teach the student the relationship between himself and his government. A series of observation projects may help to make this relationship real, and co-operative relationships between the schools and the community on a work experience basis will help make him feel at home.

SECONDARY EDUCATION AND MILITARY TRAINING

Finally, I turn briefly to a topic which may be the most difficult to cope with, administratively, of all of those which will face secondary and higher education in the years ahead. This is the relation between military training and secondary education.

I do not believe that it is safe to assume that this war will come to an end, as did the last one, with an almost complete demobilization of our military forces. It seems to me much more probable that we shall face a period of great social unrest all over the world, a period that may last for many years—possibly for more than a generation. During that period we may need to have our armed forces in many parts of the world. In any case we will need a military force of considerable size.

I look forward to the possibility, or probability, that we shall have, in the period immediately following any treaty of peace, compulsory military training for all able-bodied young men. Possibly also there may be some form of compulsory service for young women. If we should find it necessary to adopt compulsory service over a period of years, then we would find ourselves with two systems of education, one of which most certainly would be administered by the Federal government. The Federal system of military training would undoubtedly begin to take over youth not later than the age of eighteen, and it might keep them for a minimum period of from eighteen to twenty-four months. How could we co-ordinate such a system of education and training under the Federal government with education by public and private schools? I shall not attempt to answer this question. Possibly the panel which follows me on the program may wish to comment upon it.

These, then, are the main problems of secondary education in the future as I see it. I have not attempted to provide a design for some future Utopia. These problems are much more immediate than that. The suggestions that have been made are merely the things that I believe *must* be done if the schools are to assume the role that is waiting for them in the construction of a working democracy in a world that must be rebuilt.

DISCUSSION PANEL—by team representing the East and team representing the West.

Topic: THE EAST ASKS THE WEST ABOUT THE CORE CURRICULUM.

Chairman, Jesse B. Davis, Dean, School of Education, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

Team representing the East:

Warren Seyfert, *Chairman*, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts

I. Keith Tyler, Associate Professor of Secondary Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

J. Cecil Parker, Director of Secondary-School Curriculum Study, Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan

Paul B. Jacobson, Principal, University High School, Chicago, Illinois

Team representing the West:

John W. Wilson, *Chairman*, Principal, David Starr Jordan Senior High School, Long Beach, California

William Brown, Head, Curriculum Department, Los Angeles City Schools, California

Andrew P. Hill, District Superintendent of Schools, Santa Maria, California

Harvey J. Holt, Principal, Santa Barbara High School, California

Chairman Davis. This looks like an old-west minstrel show. The East asks the West. We do not know just what is the West. If you are in California everything east of the Rocky Mountains is East. If you are in New England everything west of the Hudson River is West, so we do not know where the East or West begins. Today, the East has come to the West to ask about the Core Curriculum.

The two teams were introduced. The team representing the East centered their inquiries around these questions.

1. If a stranger walks into a school or reads a school's instructional outlines, how can he tell whether or not the school has a core curriculum? That is, what tends in practice to be its identifying characteristics as far as its external appearances are concerned?

2. What are you trying to get at through the core curriculum? What old purposes are attacked more skillfully? What new purposes?

3. From what sources are the learning experiences making up the core derived? How are they derived? Who derives them?

4. What teaching procedures are used in the core curriculum?

5. How are problems of sequence and placement solved?

6. How are the various administrative problems created by the organization of a core curriculum handled?

7. In particular, how is the teaching staff handled in regard to such matters as co-operative planning, teaching assignments, and in-service training?

8. What are employed to determine the extent to which the core curriculum is doing what it is supposed to do, especially as regards social outlook and action?

9. What is the relationship of the core curriculum to the other parts of the pupil's total school experience?

10. What are the principal problems as yet unsolved in the organization and administration of core curriculums?

All the members of the team representing the West offered many interpretations of their individual conceptions of the many aspects of the core curriculum. Interest in the subject continued unabated for a full hour, with a spirited participation by members of both teams.

Dean Jesse B. Davis then presented the following summary of the panel discussion.

From this give-and-take discussion we may draw the inference that the concept of a core curriculum is still in the process of development. Not all are necessarily agreed as to details, but for the purpose of debate it may be defined as follows:

a. From the point of view of the pupil it is a common program planned for the orientation and growth of the pupil as an individual member of a social group.

b. As to content it is a minimum of fundamental information and experience which every pupil should have, to the extent of his capacity to achieve, in becoming an intelligent citizen and worker.

c. It was maintained that these desired growths take place most effectively when developed in situations which draw as richly as possible upon the culture for their experiences and present them as unitary, functional, interrelated wholes rather than isolated bits of subject matter.

The core curriculum is scheduled on the basis of two consecutive class periods each day through the earlier secondary-school years tapering off to one period each day in the last year.

The program is taught by one person called the guidance teacher and assisted at times by special teachers such as art, music, and the practical arts.

Both pupils and teachers have a voice in working out problems and units of work. Varied planning schemes are used. A general theme or topic may be arbitrarily allotted to each year or grade with freedom to plan units within that particular area to avoid duplication in succeeding years.

Teachers are prepared by institute sessions, intensive work before the opening of the school year, and by taking university courses. The plan at Boston University School of Education for Training Teachers for this work was described. In this school a core curriculum is compulsory for all students in the freshman and sophomore years. It is called American Civilization. The basic outline is the economic and social history of the United States. Woven into this backbone is literature, art, music, philosophy and religion, the contributions of science to our progress, European backgrounds, and the interdependence of nations. The class meets for two hours five days per week. The work includes lectures by leading professors in the several fields, work projects, trips, and visual and auditory aids. All is directed by a co-ordinator who supervises the work, conducts "round ups," tests, and holds conferences with students. The results of this experiment during the past five years have proved most gratifying.

The defenders of the core curriculum in the discussion group felt certain that any evaluation of the outcomes of the experiments were wholesome, practical, and altogether worth the effort not alone for the pupils but in the growth of the teacher involved.

Junior High-School Section

Topic: TODAY'S PROGRAM FOR PUPIL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT IN
THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

George E. Hook, Principal of the Lake Junior High School of Denver,
Colorado, presiding. The meeting was held in the Western Women's Club.

In the Field of Health

ANNE SCHLEY DUGGAN

*President, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation,
Director, Health and Physical Education Department, Texas
State College for Women, Denton, Texas*

*Western Women's Club, San Francisco, California,
February 25, 1942—2:30 P. M.*

FOR CENTURIES OUR TEXTBOOKS in history and civics have pointed out the fact that human beings constitute one of a nation's greatest resources. As long ago as 800 B.C., Lycurgus—that astute creator of law in ancient Sparta—voiced this opinion when asked if Sparta should be enclosed by protective walls. He answered: "That city is well fortified which has a wall of men instead of brick." And Lycurgus did not mean men in military service only, he meant all men and all women, all boys and all girls, who loved their city and had the strength of body and the strength of spirit to maintain the things for which it stood.

Our textbooks have also pointed out for many years that health is an essential attribute of this strength of body and strength of spirit—that the ultimate strength of our Nation rests in the total fitness of its citizens. And by "health" our modern textbooks have not meant the narrow, traditional, dictionary definition of the term as "freedom from disease." They have advocated a concept even broader than that implied in "a sound body and a sound mind" to connote a quality which enables an individual to live a rich, full, abundant, useful life as a responsible member of our democratic society.

A survey of the objectives established by various groups of educators from time to time reveals the fact that the promotion of pupil health has also held a prominent place in these lists of specific educational goals over a period of many years. In incorporating health among educational objectives, school authorities have recognized a co-operative responsibility shared by the school, the parents, the private and public dentists and physicians, and the private and public health and welfare agencies. However, individual school systems have varied widely in their implementation of this important objective. Some schools have accepted it in a wholehearted and thorough-going fashion, co-ordinating school, home, and community effort toward its full realization. Other schools have accepted it glibly—like

an oft-repeated tenet of religious faith—but without earnest, concerted endeavor in behalf of its achievement.

Despite their frequently avowed recognition of the importance of universal health education, society, at large, and our schools, in particular, have found themselves in the position of the sincere colored minister who prayed, "Oh, Lawd, prop us up in all ouah leanin' places!" We who represent school, home, and community have needed frequent propping—as well as prodding—in our provision for pupil growth and development in the health area. Three times during the present century has a nationwide prodding impinged itself upon our complacency in health matters.

The first real impetus to provide adequate health education programs in our schools came as the result of the draft statistics during the first World War. You will recall that approximately thirty-three per cent of the men examined for service were found to be defective at that time. School authorities realize that many of these defects were not only remediable in nature but that many of these might have been prevented altogether had more attention been directed toward the health of these same individuals during the earlier, formative periods of their lives. Thus did the schools in general turn their attention toward various aspects of pupil health.

National attention was again called to the importance of health on the part of school children when President Hoover initiated his famous White House Conference in 1930 to which he invited specialists in all phases of health. On the basis of their recommendations, standards were established which served as renewed incentives in the promotion of growth and development in the field of pupil health. Again, therefore, the schools in general rekindled their efforts in its behalf.

And now, for the third time in the present century, attention has been focused dramatically upon the importance of health as an educational objective through the results of the Selective Service statistics based upon the medical examinations of those entering our military forces for the Second World War. That fifty per cent of the men examined were found unfit for service was a shocking revelation to a nation whose schools had listed health as one of the salient objectives of education for many years. Despite the fact that the standards for the recent Selective Service examinations are higher than those of the 1918 draft, the findings have significant implications for a more adequate program for pupil growth and development in the field of health. Some of us who are directly concerned with the health education program shared the sentiment of the centipede in the well-known rhyme when these statistics were first announced. You will recall that

"A centipede was happy quite,
Until a frog in fun
Said, 'Pray, which leg comes after which?'
This raised her mind to such a pitch,
She lay distracted in the ditch,
Considering how to run."

Now, we are impelled as never before to look searchingly into our health programs with reference to their functions in the conservation of our human resources at all educational levels. In this particular session, we are concerned primarily with this program at the junior high-school level. We realize, to be sure, that much progress has been made since the first sporadic attempts at school-health education were undertaken. But an analysis of the recent Selective Service Draft statistics makes us realize also the implications of Cecil Rhodes' last words—"so much to do, so little done."

HEALTH SERVICE

A modern program of school-health education can best be described in terms of current developments in—and specific implications for—each of the three main phases of the program—health service, healthful school living, and health instruction. Obviously the scope of an adequate health education program is too broad to treat any one phase in detail at this time. I shall describe briefly, therefore, what each phase of health education entails, and point out specific implications with reference to their improved functioning.

Health service includes all of the procedures which are used to determine the child's health status. This means, specifically, medical, physical, and psychological examinations in keeping with the broad concept of health presented at the beginning of this discussion. Health service includes, also, protective procedures for the prevention of specific diseases and defects, and a follow-up service for the correction of those defects which are remediable in nature.

Schools vary in their attitudes toward the extent of their own responsibilities in promoting pupil growth and development through health service procedures. Some have felt that it was the function of the school to educate the whole child and have provided extensive health service facilities, staffed by school physicians, nurses, dentists, and psychiatrists. Other schools have felt that the appraisal, protective, and corrective aspects of the health program are the responsibility of parents, through private physicians and dentists, and have confined their own activities in this regard, therefore, to the filing of certificates covering specific items of such service.

Regardless of the ultimate responsibility, the need for more adequate health service is both basic and urgent. Thorough periodic examinations and the correction of all remediable defects at the junior high-school level are indispensable to a program of pupil growth and development. The task should entail the co-ordinated efforts of school, parents, family physicians and specialists, and both public and private health and welfare agencies. Someone, to be sure, must take the initiative in seeing that such co-ordinated efforts are brought about. The schools are a development of our democracy. They have a grave responsibility to preserve and to perpetuate it. If the fitness of a nation has any relationship to the winning of a war in which democracy is at stake, then the nation's schools must be concerned with the

total fitness of the boys and girls enrolled in them. The schools, therefore, must establish standards governing an adequate health service program, must acquaint those in the home and in the community with these standards, and must assist by co-ordinating their respective efforts to bring these standards about.

Let me point out a few specific areas in which we may achieve true conservation of our human resources at the junior high-school level through more thorough and universal health service procedures. First, in the field of communicable diseases, still more can be achieved through immunization, isolation, and other methods directed toward their prevention and control. While morbidity statistics are difficult to compile with any degree of completeness and accuracy, we know that many infectious illnesses—including the so-called "common cold"—occur among pupils of junior high-school age. We know also that the toll exacted by these diseases is a heavy one with reference to human efficiency and longevity. While the age span from birth until five years is the period for the greatest number of recorded illnesses, the period from five until fourteen—which includes junior high-school pupils—is second only in the number of recorded illnesses to the period comprising age sixty-five and upward. Many parents once believed that it was best for children to contract mumps, measles, scarlet fever, *et cetera*, during childhood in the benighted notion that they should face adulthood with the acquired immunity which recovery from these diseases afforded. By the same token, they did not realize that their children might also face adulthood with impaired vision and hearing, damaged hearts, and lowered general resistance. But modern parents—in co-operation with a modern school-health education program—are better informed. They cannot congratulate themselves as did the elderly grandmother who said that "she was surely glad that she had raised her children before there were any germs." We know about bacteria and communicable diseases. We know what should be done for the prevention and control of these diseases. We should, therefore, co-ordinate the efforts of pupils and parents with those of the proper authorities in charge of this phase of health service.

The detection and correction of remediable defects is another aspect of health service which has inestimable value in the conservation of human resources at the junior high-school level. Many of these defects fail to manifest themselves until this period. An energetic campaign should be undertaken to insure thorough medical and dental examinations with subsequent treatment directed toward the correction of such defects as carious teeth, astigmatism, far- and near-sightedness in vision, removal of diseased tonsils and adenoids, poor nutritional status, poor muscular and skeletal development, *et cetera*. Many schools are making an analysis of the Selective Service statistics in relation to the percentage of similar defects apparent during school years. Isolated studies show that the results parallel each other closely. This fact, to be sure, has military implications for a

nation at war as well as health implications for a happier and more fruitful life during times of peace.

Another vital area in which we may achieve conservation of human resources at the junior high-school level through more adequate health service programs is with reference to the spread of a particularly destructive disease—tuberculosis. Although this cause of death has been decreased for the population as a whole, it ranks third as a cause of death among children from ten to fourteen years of age,—a period which cuts across the junior high-school level. Perhaps even more significant, however, is the fact that tuberculosis is the chief cause of death among young women between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five, and is second only to accidents as the chief cause of death for young men of the same age span. Many of these cases of tuberculosis which prove fatal during senior high school and early adulthood are incipient—and therefore more curable—stages during the junior high-school period. A thorough case-finding program—through the use of tuberculin which may indicate the actual presence of, or previous exposure to, tuberculosis—should be undertaken by the schools in co-operation with school or family physicians, public health agencies, and such private organizations as the National Tuberculosis Association. Final diagnosis, of course, should rest in the hands of the skilled physician after X-rays have been used to follow up those cases which reacted positively to the tuberculin test.

HEALTHFUL SCHOOL LIVING

A second phase of the school-health education program—healthful school living—is concerned with the school environment or the provision of a desirable setting wherein all school experiences may take place. Healthful school living includes the sanitation of the school plant, the elimination of all safety hazards such as slippery or dark stairs, rough playground surfaces, defective play equipment, and the like. Healthful school living also includes the psychological aspects of a desirable school environment with reference to the elimination of tension and unnecessary noise, the development of desirable classroom situations, the maintenance of good teacher-pupil relationships, and others. The problem of school lunches is still another aspect of healthful school living as well as such factors as proper lighting, heating, and ventilation.

This particular phase of school-health education has made rapid progress in the past decade. For this growth, we are indebted in great measure to discoveries in science and in engineering. Architects no longer design school buildings that are massive aesthetic replica of Greek or Roman architecture. The modern school building is functional in design with adequate provision for light and ventilation through the proper relationship between floor and window-areas. School plants are constructed in keeping with the specific recommendations of safety experts. Artistic use of color

and materials in decoration contribute further to the attractiveness of the school building.

Very prominent among areas of healthful school living in which we should undertake a conservation of human resources is through the prevention of accidents. The National Safety Council reports that in 1940, forty-four per cent of the accidents which befell children of public school age were classified as accidents incurred under school jurisdiction. When we realize that accidents—which occur at school, at home, in transit between school and home, and in other phases of community life—are the chief cause of death among both junior and senior high-school groups, we are impressed anew with the school's role in their prevention. The modern school program recognizes the importance of eliminating safety hazards at school and the implications for improved instruction in safety directed toward the reduction of home, school, and community accidents.

HEALTH INSTRUCTION

This brings us to a consideration of the third and last phase of school health education—that of health instruction. Instruction in every field of knowledge is based upon the assumption that human beings, when confronted with the facts in any matter, will act in accordance with the facts rather than pursue the paths of ignorance. This assumption was admirably illustrated in the old-fashioned disciplinary measure of making naughty youngsters read the Good Book in the belief that their conduct would be improved thereby. If the assumption were sound, physicians would never be ill, minister's sons would be models, and shoemakers' children would be best shod. That this state of affairs is not automatically true failed to invalidate the assumption for many years.

To this end, therefore, knowledge has been eulogized since time immemorial. Bacon praised it in his famous dictum that "Knowledge is power." Most of the early educators adhered to the Baconian theory, and schools evolved curriculums in which factual knowledge was the sum and substance—never stopping to evaluate underlying assumptions and to realize, therefore, that "to know" and "to do" are not inevitable correlatives.

Most of us can look back upon our own experiences when that knowledge, which was supposed to be power, proved powerless beyond retention of memory (and only then if we were lucky!) until after the written examination. Just as an exercise, how much Latin do you recall? Geography? You remember only those aspects which you used somehow or which had particular significance for you beyond the narrow confines of the geography-binder or the examination booklet.

And so there have been astute writers who have qualified Bacon's concept. Two of our proverbs are particularly significant with reference to health instruction at the junior high-school level. "Knowledge is a treasure, but practice is the key to it" and "Knowledge without practice makes

but half an artist." Huxley voices the same idea when he says "The great end of life is not knowledge, but action."

Information regarding health, therefore, is not to be accumulated in the mass for sheer purposes of accumulation. Knowledges, skills, habits, practices must be linked closely to the purposes which they serve and with the outcomes which they seek. Information regarding health must be closely associated with attitudes and drives if this information is to be applied, in turn, to desirable health practices.

Of what virtue is it that pupils know the amount of light needed on study surfaces, the desirable temperature for a study room, principles of posture while sitting at a desk, the importance of a proper study environment free from the noise of radios, children, and traffic if our boys and girls go home to study in a hot living room, on the floor, at a time when father listens to his favorite radio program and mother argues with the younger children about bedtime. The modern program of health instruction, therefore, attempts to influence actual living. It attempts, also, to base its content upon pupil needs and pupil interests. Early health instruction was concerned chiefly with the teaching of knowledges in physiology and anatomy. Hygiene was taught with primary emphasis upon the acquisition of facts, and this emphasis upon facts alone made it a dull subject indeed. Just how dull it usually was is illustrated in an ancient inscription found printed inside the cover of a physiology book:

"If there should be another flood
Straight to this book I'd fly,
Because, though all the world were wet,
This book would still be dry."

At the junior high-school level, we know that boys and girls are beginning to manifest greater interest in the opposite sex. They are in need, therefore, of instruction which will give them attitudes toward desirable relationships, the importance of real friends among both sexes, and a concept of the privileges and responsibilities which the onset of puberty brings with it.

In like fashion, the approach to modern programs of health instruction is psychological rather than purely logical—and therefore traditional—in its presentation. Psychologically, junior high-school boys and girls tend to be hero worshippers. Consequently, we do not present units entitled "The Control of Communicable Diseases" but rather, we approach the same knowledges through a study of the lives of men like Trudeau, Pasteur, Jenner, Lister, and Reed. We do not announce topics on "The Hygiene of the Nervous System" but let our discussion in this area of health instruction grow out of a question which might be phrased "How can rest and relaxation make me a more attractive girl or a better athlete?"

If those who are in charge of health instruction believe in the old adage that "the proof of the pudding lies in the eating," then they are concerned with the problem of seeing that their instruction carries over into desirable

changes in health behavior. To accomplish this outcome, they seize every available opportunity for applying health instruction to actual life situations in school, home, and community. Let me indicate a few school situations in which application of health instruction may be made to excellent advantage.

1. The school cafeteria is an invaluable laboratory for dealing with
 - (a) Problems of nutrition or adequate diets
 - (b) Table manners, with implications upon mental health and a sense of social well-being
 - (c) Good conversation and the promotion of wholesome social relationships in an atmosphere of quiet relaxation.
2. The health examination can be linked up with instruction with respect to the control and prevention of diseases and the correction of remediable defects.
3. Prowess on athletic teams can be utilized for instruction in physical fitness.
4. A school accident can be seized upon for motivating instruction and pupil standards on sound safety measures.
5. School absences can promote a study of cases, prevalence of colds, prevention and the like.

If you agree that the conservation and development of the health of our junior high-school boys and girls is an important responsibility of the schools in which they are enrolled, you will necessarily agree with the fact that adequate implementation of school-health education must be brought about through suitable legislation, a sufficient allocation of funds, the employment of well-trained personnel, and complete co-operation between school authorities, parents, family health consultants, and private and public health and welfare agencies. To realize its ultimate objectives, the health education program must function twenty-four hours each day under intelligent self-direction and school, home, and community supervision.

In a recent editorial, Thomas Briggs paraphrased the saying "In time of peace, prepare for war" to read "In time of war, prepare for peace." President Roosevelt has told us that this is to be a long, hard, and exacting war. Boys and girls now enrolled in our junior high schools will have an active responsibility in bringing about the reconstruction of this nation when an enduring peace is won. In his recent article "A Philosophy for the War" (which appeared in the *Reader's Digest*), Harry Scherman drew his text from Abraham Lincoln's second annual message to Congress, in 1862, when Lincoln stated in simple, effective language, "We shall nobly save or meanly lose the last best hope of Earth." Mr. Scherman concludes that a peace soundly and intelligently based upon integration of world political and economic activities is "the last best hope of Earth," and that it is the men and women of this generation who will "nobly save or meanly lose" it.

The development and perpetuation of this integrated and unified world at peace—an even greater task—must be brought about by the next generation—wrought in the face of serious, economic hardships in all countries.

The task ahead for the youth of today is a great one which will make strenuous demands upon strength, endurance, morale, and ability. Such qualities of fitness can be developed now in junior high school. Now we must develop bodies free from defect, disease, and with virile resistance against infection and illness. Now we must equip pupils with desirable health knowledges and attitudes necessary for conserving and developing health in themselves and in their communities. This is the challenge for the schools! It seems, therefore, that the schools, themselves, can "nobly save or meanly lose" our "last best hope"—the youth of our nation.

May I close as I began by presenting the concept of health as a "quality of life which renders the individual fit to live most and serve best." No longer is good health an "ivory tower" unto each individual, it is desirable only as it gives one the power to serve his kind. This power, controlled by intelligence, is the greatest contribution which the school can make toward the salvation of democracy. The responsibility implied looms as a tremendous task. Lest we grow too disheartened at the magnitude of the task, may I conclude with my favorite anecdote of the two mice who fell into an open container of milk which a farmer left on a shelf overnight. One mouse began calling for help, doing nothing else until his voice got weaker and weaker; ultimately, he became exhausted, and drowned. The other mouse could not jump high enough to clear the top of the container, but he kept jumping as high as he could in an effort to succeed. Next morning, the farmer found the first mouse dead in the bottom of the container and the second mouse asleep on the large lump of butter he had churned by his efforts.

Herbert R. Stolz, Superintendent of Schools of Oakland, California. The topic: "In the field of emotions." This address is not included due to the fact that he prepared no manuscript.

The Curriculum of the Junior High School

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER

Dean, School of Education, Stanford University

THE FACULTIES of junior high schools are relatively free, in comparison with those of the senior high school, to develop the curriculum in terms of the needs of pupils. They do not have to bow to college entrance requirements. Colleges and universities have generally adopted the policy of admitting students on the basis of the work done in the last three years of the secondary school. This release is an item of considerable importance. It affects not only the students who will go on to higher institutions but in addition many students who entertain ambitions to continue their education beyond the secondary school but never carry out their plans. Also, subjects which qualify one to enter a higher institution gain a prestige value which

causes them to be selected by students in preference to the other subjects, even though the other subjects would better serve their needs. The junior high school, too, is not so much concerned with the "unit of credit" to indicate mastery of a fixed body of subject matter. It is not quite so difficult in the junior high school to operate on the basis of needs of pupils and the development of behaviors considered to be desirable.

In the junior high school we are dealing with pupils in the pubescent and early adolescent stage of development. However, these pupils vary greatly in their development. In *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls*, produced by the Committee on Workshops of the Progressive Education Association, we find this generalization: "Each person has his own pattern of development which differs in greater or less degree from every person. This is true if one focuses attention on any one aspect of development or any one area of functioning. As one attempts to consider any individual as a complete personality the implications of the variation in development are startling. Because of the individual nature of patterns of development any classification of children as two-year-olds, seven-year-olds or fifteen-year-olds, on the assumption that they are alike in anything except number of years of life since birth, is fallacious. During puberty, boys of the same chronological age have been studied who in physiological aspects of growth were as far apart as five years. Individual variation in educational practice has been obscured by the use of norms or averages."¹ While recognizing the wide variation among individuals and the danger of dealing with averages, it is desirable for us to inquire whether there are needs of the early adolescent group which should be met by the curriculum of the junior high school.

The special needs of the early adolescent grow out of his rapid physical growth, his sexual maturity, and his establishment of new personal-social relations with his peers and with adults. The same PEA report stresses the fact that: "This is a period marked by rapid growth and maturing. There is no other time in a person's life when such rapid changes take place, except before birth and during the first year of infancy. It is marked not only by rapid physiological growth but also by striking changes in attitudes and behavior toward people, in insight into self, and in beliefs and ideas about the world and universe. There is no doubt from material gathered in recent studies that one of the primary areas of interest during puberty and adolescence is the area of personal-social relations."²

In the limited time available, it is possible to deal with only a few aspects of the curriculum for pupils in the pubescent and early adolescent stage of development. I shall deal primarily with techniques for discovering and satisfying their needs and only secondarily with the arrangement or rearrangement of the content of the various subjects. During this period, especially, we should concentrate on the needs of growing and maturing

¹Meek, Lois Hayden (Chairman), *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls*, pp. 22-23. Committee on Workshops, Progressive Education Association, 1940. pp. 243.

²*Ibid.*, p. 17.

boys and girls. This viewpoint underlies my first recommendation concerning the program of the junior high school, which bears as much on the guidance phase of the program as on the curriculum. *We should know each individual pupil intimately.* Many of his problems and needs will not be recognized without close observation of his life in the classroom, on the playground, in the home, and in the community. What are his attitudes toward himself, toward his parents, toward his teachers, and toward the opposite sex? What are his questions, worries, and fears? What are his interests and ambitions? To be fully adequate in our treatment, we would need extensive data concerning each individual similar to that Peter Bloss⁸ reports on Betty, Paul, Mary, and Joe in his volume, *The Adolescent Personality*. Those of you who have read Dr. Bloss' book will recognize that we cannot always secure as exhaustive an analysis of each individual as he presents. However, a very great deal can be done in every school.

TEACHER-COUNSELOR ESSENTIAL

In every school, it should be possible to have a teacher-counselor who serves as a guide and friend to small groups of pupils. This teacher-counselor should remain with the group for several years, probably throughout the entire junior high-school period. This continuity of relationship makes it possible to know each pupil well and to gain an understanding of pupil behavior which comes from knowledge of earlier experiences. The home-room teacher in many schools is supposed to render the service here suggested. In some instances, effective work is being done under the home-room plan. Conditions are more favorable, however, if the teacher-counselor is responsible for a considerable fraction of the instruction of the group under a core-course arrangement. If the teacher-counselor has as much as two hours a day with a group, he can become much better acquainted with the pupils than is possible in the short home-room period. The core courses, sometimes referred to as social living, or personal and social problems, or general education, have the advantage of providing time for the study and discussion of the real problems of the individual. The discussion with pupils of questions and problems that cause them most concern is very revealing of their characteristics and needs.

Some schools adopt another procedure to aid in the analysis of the individual. Teachers of the pupils on a grade level work together as a team in planning the education of their pupils. These teachers pool their observations and experiences with individual pupils and thereby get a more adequate picture than any one teacher could operating alone. The teacher-counselor would naturally serve as chairman of the faculty group handling his advisees. The special needs of a pupil are by this method revealed to all of his teachers; hence, his needs can be recognized in all of his courses and activities. This type of collaboration can contribute greatly to the redirection of the educational program to serve the needs of pupils. It

⁸Bloss, Peter. *The Adolescent Personality*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. pp. 517.

represents a much more functional grouping of teachers than the subject-matter departmental groupings frequently found in secondary schools.

The fact should be noted, too, that the study of problems may involve drawing materials from several subject fields. Pupils studying the operation of democracy in the school may draw from history and from literature to ascertain the nature of the democratic way of life. If the problem of soil conservation is being studied, pupils will need to draw on the materials of biology, chemistry, agriculture, economics, political science, and sociology. Materials from all these fields have a bearing on our thinking on this problem. The requirements of the problem should determine the materials to be used. It is this need for flexibility that has stimulated the development of the core courses in the secondary schools of the country.

Frequent reference has already been made in this paper to the desirability of having pupils study personal and social problems. I should like to emphasize this point still further. The study of subject matter without reference to a vital concern of the pupil or without application to some problem of importance to him and to the community is almost certain to lead to the lack of vital student interest, the selection of non-functional subject matter for study, the loss of much of the subject matter through forgetting before application is made in the life of the student, and an absence of training in many aspects of the process of problem solving. A pupil should learn to recognize and to define a problem, analyze it into its basic elements and formulate tentative hypotheses as to a desirable solution, collect relevant data, evaluate, organize and interpret the data, form tentative conclusions, verify them and then act on the basis of the conclusions which are drawn. This process⁴ contains the elements required for the effective handling of situations in actual life. To be effective the problems studies must be important to the pupil, contain several alternatives which permit intelligent choice on the basis of available data, imply some course of action, be suited to the maturity of the group, and be related to the educational objectives recognized by both pupils and teacher.

Such problems as the following are important to junior high-school pupils: How can I make friends and work effectively with others? How can I improve my personal appearance? How can I help develop a more effective democracy in the life of the school? How can I best develop and use my talents in the many aspects of living? What are desirable personal goals for me? What plan of study will best serve my needs? How can I best apply myself in my work in school?

In Eugene, Oregon seventh-grade pupils new to the junior high school deal with such problems as the following: How can I live effectively in my new school environment? How can I get along with boys and girls of my own age? How can I find (or develop) a worth-while hobby? How can I live more safely in the community? How can we make Eugene a more

⁴Hanna, Lavone, Krug, Edward, and Quillen, I. James. *The Problems Approach*. Bulletin No. 10 of the Stanford Social Education Investigation. 1940. Pp. 87.

beautiful city? How can we maintain and develop the natural beauties and recreational facilities of our state? How can Oregon be developed into a more important agricultural state? How can the Northwest develop into a more important manufacturing region? How shall we treat people of other races and nationalities? How can I know what to believe in what I read and hear?

In planning a program which deals with personal and social problems, the pupils should share responsibility in the selection of problems for study. The interests and concerns of the group will influence the choice. In some schools a larger number of problems are listed than can possibly be dealt with and choices are made on the basis of student interests and needs. In other schools, a general theme or focus is designated for a grade or maturity level and the teachers and students, working together, select the problems for group study. Whatever procedure is adopted, the problems which are studied should satisfy the criteria which have been listed earlier in this paper.

In the study of problems, there should be an examination of all the important evidence, all important viewpoints, and all important proposals for solution. The study of a single text will not suffice. In the social field, pupils should make contact with writers and speakers representing both the liberal and the conservative viewpoints. Only in this way can students learn of the alternatives from which they may choose. The approach of both the teacher and the pupil should be that of a co-operative studying of the problem. It should not be that of trying to get the pupil to accept the conclusions of the teacher as truth. Pupils should be helped to see the thinking of the teacher in relation to the different points of view supported by others of equal or greater scholarship and experience with the problem.

When indicating the nature of the problem approach, you will recall that the last step listed was, "Act on the basis of the conclusions drawn." This action phase, frequently neglected in school practice, is of great importance. If it is at all possible, pupils should be given opportunity to act along the lines of their conclusions. Pupils can most easily do something about their own personal problems and problems of the local school and community. If the problem is one before the people of the state and nation, pupils can still play some part. They cannot, of course, take the official steps. Participation in connection with state issues will be different from that which is involved in changing a regulation in the school or of getting a "stop" sign at the corner in front of the school building. They can discuss the issues involved with their adolescent and adult friends. They can make some contribution to the thinking of those who have not studied the problem. They can correspond with their representative, indicating their judgment of what should be done. In some instances, pupils will learn the complexity of the problem and the need of more experience and training before they can confidently act wisely. However, the maturity of pupils should be recognized in the choice of problems for study. It is not desirable

to attempt the study of problems that fall outside the limits of their interest and experience.

THINGS DONE BY PUPILS

What are some of the things done by secondary-school students? The February, 1942, number of *Progressive Education* contains a list of 167 examples of youth participation in the life of the community. The projects include home beautification at Egg Harbor, New Jersey, community planning at Fayette, Alabama, construction of a community map in Habersham County, Georgia, a city get-out-the-vote campaign at Des Moines, Iowa, a vocational opportunity survey at Schenectady, projects to develop better agriculture, to conserve forests and soil, to develop co-operatives, to exterminate pests, to promote good health, to improve recreation and housing in the community, and to improve the classroom and school environment.

Some activities of the type here listed were early introduced into the junior high-school curriculum under the label, "extra curriculum." When this was done, the regular courses frequently continued to involve a study of blocks of subject matter. Gradually we are coming to see the undesirability of this dichotomy. The problems dealt with in the extracurriculum should be thoroughly studied if the potential educational values are to be achieved. In addition, some of the objectives of the regular course instruction can be best realized through the activities which involve use of the materials being dealt with in the instructional program.

Instruction in English will serve as an example of what I mean. In English instruction we aim to develop power in communication, including reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Reading can best be taught when there is a real purpose for reading. Different purposes and different types of materials will require somewhat different reading techniques. The techniques appropriate for the different purposes and materials can be best developed, not by merely studying about them but by using them under supervision. Pupils with marked deficiencies might be helped by careful analysis in a reading clinic and by carefully directed practice or other forms of treatment, depending on the nature of the deficiencies revealed by the diagnosis.

We are also concerned in English with the development of power in communication through writing and speaking. We can teach writing and speaking better by providing experiences in writing and speaking, under supervision, in situations in which the individual has something to say and some reason for saying it. The discipline in obtaining, organizing and presenting ideas to accomplish some purpose can be provided only by practice, under supervision, in doing that very thing. We have had difficulty in recognizing that knowledge about language does not automatically lead to the use of language in harmony with the rules of grammar which are studied. Those who make the highest scores on tests of grammar do not

always use language with greatest effectiveness. Language usage involves more than knowledge of language. It involves the more important element of the selection, ordering, and interpretation of ideas. Writing and speaking laboratories are desirable to assist the pupils when they have some real occasion to speak and to write or when they have some marked deficiency which requires careful diagnosis and remedial treatment. Consequently, the projects which involve reading, interpretation, speaking and writing provide practice of the desirable skills in a natural setting. A similar analysis could be made of the other areas of the curriculum. Whenever there is life and activity there is experience and opportunity for development of the individual. We have had too much education involving only study about life without effort to provide opportunity for pupils to live richly and effectively under supervision.

In the present war period when the life of the early adolescent is disturbed, we should give special attention to his morale. Activities in the school and community which open up opportunity for pupils to make some socially significant contribution are especially helpful. It is desirable, too, that pupils secure assistance from the school in their efforts to solve their problems and resolve their tensions and conflicts. In other words, in this presentation, I am asking that we think of the curriculum of the junior high school not as subject matter but as living experience, based on needs of the pupils and of the culture, and involving the study of personal and social problems and participation in socially significant projects in the school and the community.

News Notes

A READING AID TO THE BUSY SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—Amid new ideas and changing methods educators will get essential aid from the *Loyola Educational Digest*. It is a professional publication giving a complete survey of the entire educational and psychological fields, American and British. Each issue comprises a book of 16 pages and a set of 20 cards containing digests. It appears ten times yearly. The editor is Austin G. Schmidt, Professor of Education, Loyola University, Chicago, Ill. The Digest keeps the secondary-school principal in touch with developments in his field. A rapid scanning of the classified bibliography shows what has been appearing in approximately 200 periodicals. The book reviews, written with the purpose of describing the contents of the books as fully as possible, put the reader in touch with the contributions of educational leaders. The Digest cards give him complete abstracts of the more significant studies. The regular subscription price of the *Loyola Educational Digest* is \$3.00 per year (10 issues). Back issues can still be had at 35 cents each, or at 30 cents each if a year or more are ordered at one time. Special built filing cases are available for the cards. Full information about a special introductory offer can be secured by addressing Loyola Educational Digest, 3441 N. Ashland Ave., Chicago, Ill.

SOME ARTICLES FOR THE BUSY SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—The *Ohio Schools*, (January, 1942, published by the Ohio Education Association, 213-215 East Broad Street, Columbus, Ohio, Single copies 15 cents), contains a number of very interesting and well-written articles that will be of real interest to secondary-school principals and other persons associated in secondary-school work. Many of these articles not only report theory but also practices that are being carried on under actual school situations. Some of the articles included in this issue are: "Developing the Modern Language Course," "Plan for Recognizing Achievement in the School Program," "An English Assignment Becomes a Commencement Program," "Reaching the 'Above-Average' Students," "Does the Curriculum Need Changing?" "Consumer Education in the Ninth Grade Science," "School Journalism Proves Itself," "History as an Ego-Conditioner," "Intramural Athletics in Year-Round Program," "Small High School Becomes Vocational High School," "Counsel for the Defense of Mathematics," "A System of Evaluation Through State Tests," "Guidance as a Daily Process," "Are Superior Students Neglected?" "Young America Sings!" "Learning the Ways of Democracy," "The Value of Industrial Arts in the School Curriculum," "What Can a Small School French Club Do?" and "Why Not Hold a Poetry Tournament?"

A TIMELY MESSAGE—Levi Gilbert, Past President of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, in presenting the report for the year 1940-41 to the Board of Education in the school district of Altoona, Pa., uses these most significant words in the foreword: "I have this further to report. In every Altoona classroom the American flag is loved and honored. That way of life, of which our flag is the symbol, is daily taught and practiced. Because Altoona teachers, in thought, word, and deed, are one hundred per cent loyal Americans, the minds and the hearts of Altoona children are safe in their schools."

SAFETY'S JOB IN WARTIME—To some people it may seem paradoxical that there is a need to intensify accident prevention work in wartime. Why worry about an accidental death here and there, they may ask, when life must be purposefully sacrificed on the battlefield? It's the old story of not seeing

the forest for the trees. The answer is apparent to any thoughtful American who manages to keep his sense of proportion in the barrage of black headlines. *Safety is not a peacetime luxury. Accidents are a peacetime luxury! In wartime the luxury of waste cannot be tolerated!* Wars are not won at the front line only. Victory depends upon factories, transportation, the thousand and one jobs behind the lines that must not be interrupted. Accidents delay production. They cripple transportation. They rob the nation of essential manpower. They eat up inexorably the precious minutes that mean another bomber, another tank, another warship. Accidents definitely hinder the war effort of this country!

President Roosevelt saw the danger when he issued his proclamation last August. The danger then has grown a thousandfold today. War has only made more acute the need to intensify accident prevention efforts in this country. We are making progress—the upward trend of accidents has been slowed up by almost half. But the trend is still up. We cannot be content until the curve dips sharply downward. The problem is big—*More Americans were killed in November traffic alone than by enemy bombers at Pearl Harbor!* The problem is urgent—*A fleet of 20 battleships, 200 destroyers and 1,000 heavy bombers could be built with the production time lost through accidents to American workers in the first nine months of 1941!*

Will the ban on new automobiles and tires reduce the traffic accident toll? The National Safety Council's answer is—maybe! The curtailment may cut deaths, if it does three things: (1) Reduces sharply the number of cars in use, (2) Influences those who do use cars to conserve them by driving less, and (3) Influences motorists to drive more slowly and carefully, to prevent excessive wear and possible loss of the car in a wreck. But the Council believes there are opposing factors which may balance or even tip the scale the other way. They are: (1) Motorists will be driving older cars, and many find it difficult to keep them in safe condition because of a shortage of spare parts and mechanics, (2) Tires in many instances will be used beyond the safety point, (3) Many cars discarded as unfit for service will go back on the road, (4) The tempo and urgency of war production and transportation will be increasing every day, further aggravating the problems that already have sent the traffic toll to record proportions, and (5) Blackouts may come to many cities.

There also is an intangible danger in the present situation. If safety leaders and the public feel that the auto and tire curtailment has automatically solved the traffic problem, there may be a let-down in personal and organized safety efforts. This must not happen. The problem of traffic accident prevention never will solve itself, barring a complete ban on the private use of gasoline. England's experience shows that traffic deaths—even daytime deaths where blackouts were not a factor—increased greatly, despite a sharp curtailment of non-essential auto travel. The toll must be cut 8,000 before we get back to where we were in 1938. This is no time for complacency. It is the time for more intensive attack. Some literature on this topic which the National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois, has available for distribution includes: *Enlist for Safety*—the handbook of the emergency campaign, *Emergency Campaign Bulletins*, issued periodically, and eight reports prepared by the Committees of the Council's Street and Highway Traffic Section, *A State Pedestrian Safety Program*, *Protecting the Pedestrian in the Traffic Accident Emergency*, *Engineering in the Traffic Accident Emergency*, *Intoxication and the Public Safety Education for the Traffic Accident Emergency*, *the Traffic Court in the Traffic Accident Emergency*, *A State Public Education Program for the Traffic Accident Emergency*, and *Winter Driving in the Traffic Accident Emergency*.

SCIENCE SPEAKS—In the last few months meetings of research men,

scientists dealt more seriously and frankly with alcohol's blighting effects on American life than most of us had thought they could or would. Allied Youth, a national organization of secondary-school youth, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., has briefly summarized some of the results of the improper use of alcohol during the year 1941. This organization has chapters in many secondary schools throughout the United States. The sane and considerably scientific manner in which this organization approaches this great problem provides an appeal to all thoughtful youth and inspires them to organize a chapter in their own school somewhat as their patriotic duty in assisting the nation to rid itself of the terrible results from the improper use of alcohol.

Discussed as a factor in the raising of war taxes was the sum spent in 1941 by American consumers for their alcoholic drinks. It reached fully four billions, according to the testimony of Federal officials. Tax experts mentioned alcoholic drinks and gambling as the beneficiaries of much wild spending in defense centers, unless tax measures were provided to drain off the extra dollars of income that would be wasted in such expenditures. A report of the Treasury Department showed 504,000,000 gallons of whiskey in bonded storage at the end of October, 1941, which was 5 per cent greater than a year earlier, and about 70 per cent higher than the stored quantities in 1914.

The National Safety Council's reports in 1941 established that more than one fatal accident in every five involved a drinking driver or a drinking pedestrian. And even that proportion, the Council survey declared, understates the true importance of alcohol in connection with the 40,000 traffic deaths that America chalked up in each recent year. In trying to catch up with the alarming trend of alcohol-caused fatalities and injuries more states acted in 1941 to make chemical tests a legal form of evidence that a driver was under the influence of alcohol at the time he became involved in an accident or other traffic violation. Connecticut and Kansas City, Missouri, made their own "human guinea pig" tests to convince police officials that the alcohol meter and the drunkometer are capable of telling the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth when they report alcohol-in-blood or in-breath ratios. It is the American Medical Association percentages of blood-alcohol count that increasingly determine what the law enforcement agencies of America will consider toxic (poisonous) to an extent that endangers the public safety.

The studies of crime that were completed or publicly announced during 1941 throw a heavy burden of responsibility on alcohol and those who promote and defend the alcoholic beverages. Statistics show that ninety per cent of the adult prisoners being punished in Massachusetts for misdemeanors owe their sentence to offenses caused by intoxication. A member of the Parole Board of the District of Columbia discovered that one-fourth of the felonies known to the board have been committed by men who have been convicted many times of drunkenness. The lamentable seriousness of the alcoholic offenses, in this total picture of crime and delinquency, is reflected by the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Comparing the nine months in 1941 with the corresponding records from police departments in 1940, arrests of men for drunkenness have increased 29.8 per cent and for women, 30 per cent. In those months, 28.3 per cent more women were reported arrested for intoxicated driving than in the previous year.

SERIES OF CURRICULUM UNITS ANNOUNCED—The University of Oregon Curriculum Laboratory has published a series of Curriculum units for use in the secondary schools. Some bulletins in this series are: *The Adventures of Puck*, (Midsummer Night's Dream No. 25, 60 cents); *Robin Hood*, (No. 26, 50 cents); *Brazil: A Land of Opportunity*, (No. 27, 50 cents); and *Interdependence of Plant and Animal Life* (A secondary-school science unit—No.

12, 30 cents). Each unit contains an overview, suggested approaches, research activities, pupil and teacher references, evaluation techniques, correlations, and other teaching aids. They may be secured from the University Co-operative Store, Eugene, Oregon. A complete annotated list of *Curriculum Bulletins* now available may be secured free from the University Co-operative Store.

TERMINAL EDUCATION WORKSHOPS FOR JUNIOR COLLEGE INSTRUCTORS—With army officials warning educators to speed up training and to offer more short terminal courses to help the all-out war effort of the nation, the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education has decided to provide from coast to coast this summer three Workshops for junior college instructors interested in setting up terminal courses and in studying other problems of terminal education. These Workshops will be located on the east coast at Harvard University, in the midwest at the University of Chicago, and on the west coast at the University of California. At least 100 scholarships will be provided for qualified junior college faculty members interested in study at the Workshops.

This action was taken by the administrative committee of the Commission which is a part of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Leland L. Medsker of the Chicago Public Schools is secretary; and Roscoe C. Ingalls, president of Los Angeles City College, California, is chairman of the committee, while Doak S. Campbell, president of Florida State College for Women, is chairman of the commission. The Workshops at the University of California were started as an experiment last summer as part of the study on terminal education being carried on by the American Association of Junior Colleges through a grant from the General Education Board of New York. With 129 representatives of 97 junior colleges from 30 states taking advantage of this opportunity last summer and with definite progress made by them toward solving problems in terminal education, the committee has been encouraged not only to continue the Workshops in California but also to establish the additional ones at Harvard and at the University of Chicago. The increased interest in terminal education in connection with the war effort this year adds even greater significance and responsibility to next summer's Workshops.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO BUSINESS EDUCATION CONFERENCE—Since 1933 the School of Business of the University of Chicago has held annual conferences concerning problems related to the reconstruction of business education in the secondary schools. The 1942 conference will be concerned with Standards in Business Education. Working in conjunction with recent conferences, the Work Committee, a group of representative educators within and outside the field of business education, has devoted its efforts to the formulation of a report upon which standards for evaluating business education in a given school situation could be based. "Standards" have been discussed in previous conferences, but the subject by no means has been exhausted.

The 1942 conference will be held on Friday and Saturday, June 26 and 27, in Haskell Hall, on the University of Chicago Quadrangles, and will be divided into two parts: (a) an invitational session at which will be discussed criteria for the establishment of standards in both basic and vocational subjects, and plans for the improvement of existing standards; and (b) a public session devoted to a discussion of standards as related to the classroom teacher, the administrator, the learner, and the parent. Contributors to the conference will include representatives of governmental educational authorities, leading educators, and administrators. Ample opportunity will be afforded for open discussion.

THE IMPROVEMENT INDEX—Mr. Clifford R. Nelson of the Parker Junior High School of Reading, Mass., has developed a term known to his school as an improvement index. This is a figure derived from the pupil's marks. It

indicates his progress from one marking period to the next. This index is determined by the pupil and gives him an indication of his general scholastic picture as a whole. The I.I. indicates that he has improved or has suffered a drop in his scholastic achievement. If he has done neither, it will also show that.

It is determined as follows: A mimeographed form is given to each pupil with his report card. The form is filled out under the supervision of the teacher. Each subject appears on the form. The pupil then enters opposite each subject he takes, the grades made for the particular marking period. He places in a column opposite the grade entered, its numerical equivalent, i.e., A is one, B is two, C is three, D is four, and F is five. These equivalents are then subtracted from the numerical equivalent made by the pupil in each similar subject during the previous marking period. The algebraic sum of these differences indicate improvement or lack of improvement. A plus value would indicate improvement while a minus value would indicate a scholastic loss and a zero would indicate that the pupil is neither losing nor improving.

STUDENT AID, 1942-1943—Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, is eager to co-operate with able young men and women in formulating their plans to carry on graduate study. Toward this end, the college encourages correspondence regarding plans for graduate study, and concerning problems of financial aid. Sixty-nine awards are available, which, with few exceptions, carry responsibility for service in some department of Teachers College and afford opportunity for professional work under close supervision of a faculty member. Awards vary in amount from \$150 to \$750. Any person qualified to carry on full-time graduate study in education is eligible. Awards are not limited to any field of specialization in Teachers College. Applicants need not have attended Teachers College previously. Credentials required to be submitted are: application form, official transcripts, and objective examinations. The Committee on Fellowships and Scholarships weighs all factors in connection with each applicant's preparation and experience which are indicative of professional promise, including nature and extent of experience and achievement, quality of scholarship, both elsewhere and in any department of Columbia University, honors and other special recognition received, publications, if any, and probably future contribution to education. Announcement of awards will be made on or about April 1, 1942. In addition to financial aid represented by fellowships, scholarships, and assistantships, loans are available to supplement such aid. Inquiries concerning loans should be addressed to the Chairman of the Loan Fund Board, Teachers College. Further assistance is provided through a program of part-time employment for students and adult members of their immediate families. For information write to the Part-time Student Employment Office, Teachers College. Further details will be found in the Teachers College Announcement, obtainable from the General Information Office of Teachers College.

LATIN-AMERICAN EXHIBITS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS—The Library Service Division of the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C., has prepared a number of interesting and instructive exhibits for use in schools throughout the United States. These exhibits numbering approximately 150 are for use in elementary, junior, and senior high schools. They vary in size and in subject emphasized. These exhibits are planned to further a better understanding of the Americas. They have been prepared by the U. S. Office of Education in co-operation with the Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and the Department of State. The exhibit has been developed with the idea that it may be displayed on a 3x6 foot table in addition to wall space necessary for display posters and maps. These exhibits are sent upon request to principals, supervisors, and superintendents.

MOVIES FOR LOAN TO SCHOOLS—The Division of Information, Office of Emergency Management, Washington, D.C., has recently produced through its film unit two motion pictures that are available to schools upon payment of transportation charges. These two films are available in sixteen mm. sound. One film, *Power for Defense* has one reel requiring ten minutes for showing. It reports the defense activities and shows the manufacture of shells, airplanes, and other items that are being produced with T.V.A. power. The other film, *Army and Overalls*, is likewise one reel, taking seven minutes to show. This depicts the work of the CCC in preparing sites for the Army, for use by parachute troops, tank units, and other divisions. When requesting a booking, three alternate dates of showing should be indicated.

OCCUPATIONAL DEFERMENT OF TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS—Lewis B. Hershey, Director of the Selective Service System, has issued the following letter: "The Office of Production Management, through its service agency, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, has completed a study with regard to the possible shortages of high school teachers. The results of this study indicate that certain fields of teaching will experience shortages which may impair the effective operation of secondary schools. The fields in which major shortages of teachers are expected to exist are: (1) Vocational Education, (2) Industrial Arts, (3) Vocational Agriculture, and (4) Physical Education for Men. These positions are almost entirely filled by men, and reserves who may serve as replacements are practically non-existent. Lesser shortages may be expected in the teaching of physical science and mathematics. Positions in these fields are filled by both men and women. However, existing shortages indicate that the reserves of women teachers are being rapidly depleted.

"In determining in each individual case the classification of teachers, it should be realized induction would not necessarily create vacancies as replacements may be available. However, where qualified replacements are not available, an impairment of the level of education will result. This is more likely to be true in less prosperous communities where compensation and conditions are less attractive. The obligation of an individual for training and service should be carefully weighed against the national interest involved in the maintenance of the level of secondary education."

NEW MUSIC SERVICE DESIGNED FOR SCHOOLS—A new monthly service feature listing all the latest Victor Red Seal and Black Label record releases, and planned as an aid for music teachers throughout the nation, has been announced by the RCA Manufacturing Company. The new service is in the form of a record folder listing each new Victor Record of interest to schools, together with a short informative discussion of the musical composition, author, and recording artists. The information will aid music teachers when making their selections of new records for music appreciation classes, and will keep them informed on all new record data. In addition teachers will find the booklet a reliable and helpful source of information for providing pupils with an adequate background in preparation for actual study of the music in the classroom. Music teachers and supervisors may secure this free information each month by sending their name and address to the Educational Department, RCA Manufacturing Co., Inc., Camden, New Jersey.

The Book Column

PROFESSIONAL BOOKS:

HERZBERT, M. J. *Radio and English Teaching*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. 1941. 246 pp. \$2.00. Innumerable opportunities for classroom discussion present themselves as one surveys the multitudinous variety of radio programs day by day. Out of this discussion may grow a most valuable product: training in appreciation, growth in intelligent enjoyment, the establishment of sound criteria. In many parts of the country courses definitely leading to the formulation of such criteria have been established, and in a number of communities they are now part of the secondary-school program, frequently of the English course of study. Scattered throughout the body of this volume are many suggestions, in detail and in outline, for courses or units. The main part of the book is divided into four parts: The "Introduction," "The Background of Radio," "History and Problems of Educational Broadcasts" and "English and Radio." Each of the chapters has been prepared by a person who can speak with authority about the particular phase of the problem he is writing. Taste, propaganda, psychology, and television constitutes the discussion forming the first part. Part III will be of especial aid to the classroom teacher and the pupils interested in preparing radio broadcasts. Included in the book are three suggested units for courses of study as well as a bibliography of publications and sources of useful material.

KEFAUVER, G. N. AND HAND, H. C. *Appraising Guidance in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Company. 1941. 260 pp. \$3.50. Appraisal of evaluation in guidance is difficult, as it is in all aspects of education. Any effort at appraisal is certain to be incomplete, the data obtained are certain to be insufficient to give final or complete answers to questions concerning the success of the educational program. Techniques have not been fully perfected and more complete appraisal must wait upon more extended studies than can now be made with the resources available at the present time. Also, limitation of financial resources prevents investigators from making full use of the techniques already available. However, it is important that a continuous effort be made to improve the evaluation of the educational program. Such efforts will result in time in the improving of techniques, in the furnishing of a significant evaluative evidence, and in the encouraging of a critical questioning approach to the problem.

Two projects involving efforts at appraisal are reported in this volume. The first, reported in Part I, involved a survey of certain characteristics of students on the junior high-school, high-school, and junior-college levels and dealt with items which represent a concern of programs of guidance. The second, reported in Part II, consisted of a three-year follow-up study of students entering the seventh grade of the junior high school and utilizing the guidance service co-operatively developed by the teachers, guidance specialists, and administrators in the participating schools, and the directors of the study. The two projects are described in some detail in the respective opening chapters of the two parts of the

volume. In both of the studies, data were secured regarding pupils to ascertain the extent of their development along the lines generally striven for by guidance workers.

KNIGHT, E. W. *Education in the United States*. Second revised edition. Boston: Ginn & Company. 1941. 669 pp. \$3.40. In easy narrative style, this book gives the reader a broad view of education in the United States. Its concern is the origin, progress, and problems of American education, with special attention to trends and issues during the past three or four decades and more particularly since 1929. It is based on the most substantial experimental and research work in the field. The influence on the schools and education of major political, economic, and social forces has been skill. Emphasis is on a few conspicuous movements and leaders and less upon theories than upon practices. Statistics and the excellent reading references have been brought up to date. Movements that have resulted from the economic depression and the crisis in Europe are included.

KYTE, G. C. *The Principal at Work*. New York: Ginn and Company. 1941. 496 pp. \$3.25. This new book presents definite guidance with respect to all the major functions of the elementary-school principal. It suggests how he should proceed as a constructive professional leader in his school and community. It defines and explains his position in the school system and his activities in planning his own program of work and in aiding his co-workers in the school to plan theirs. The principal's activities as an administrator, supervisor, public-relations agent, office manager, and professional appraiser are presented in detail. It provides a detailed presentation of the best practices checked against existing research. It attacks and carefully treats the perplexing problems of administrative procedure, supervision techniques, and appraisal. Included is material on educational philosophy, on the utilization of research techniques in supervisory work, on procedure in supervisory conferences, on diagnosis of learning difficulties, on follow-up supervisory visits, on detailed analysis of classroom performance, and a discussion of the installation of courses of study. Two chapters on public relations stress the importance of the principal's work as a link between the school and the community. It gives examples of sound practices. The treatment is developed from the standpoint of practical procedures, based on modern educational philosophy and research. Concrete illustrations explain procedures which principals have successfully used. While this book pertains exclusively to the elementary field, to the secondary-school principal who not only heads-up the secondary school but in many instances the elementary school as well in his work, this book provides a fruitful source of help to him—help that will be welcomed by many secondary-school principals who find themselves thrust into this dual position of elementary- and secondary-school administrator.

LANGTON, C. V. *Orientation in School Health*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1941. 680 pp. \$3.00. This volume will be recognized at once as a contribution of outstanding importance in the field of public health, primarily because it discusses in considerable detail, and with authority, many phases of the school health program that have heretofore been generally neglected. It provides an excellent and well-rounded discussion of the

organization and administration of the school health program in general, emphasizing fundamental principles and good practice. But attention is concentrated especially upon aspects of the subject that are less understood. In many cases, scientific information that should assist in solving some of the school health problems is here made available in easily understood form. No attention is paid to such matters as hygiene instruction, physical education, and mental hygiene—all generally recognized and accepted by the school administrator—but many topics are included which are seldom discussed in similar texts. It is a significant volume for the superintendent, principal, physical education teacher, members of school boards, and public health officials.

It is not only unique in its field, but is a most thorough treatment of the widespread problems of health education as they are related to the proper instruction of American youth. The book should be a vital requirement for institutions engaged in teacher education and for state and city school systems which are undertaking a program in health education necessitated by the emergency period through which our democratic society is passing.

ROSE, F. T. *Opinion Conflict and School Support*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1941. 164 pp. \$2.00. The schoolman concerned with the impact of public opinion upon the school policy will find in this book concrete suggestions for developing a constructive and democratic public-relations program. It considers public opinion as a force affecting education, summarizes research methods, and, by describing a study conducted in a large American city, shows how to adapt for public school use the techniques of opinion polling.

In the face of clashing demands of special interest groups, educators are constantly forced to interpret public opinion, and hence require reliable means for evaluating opinion. There is need to provide school administrators with procedures whereby they may understand and assess public opinion as it relates to educational policies and functions within communities. This need is fundamental, as long as the criterion of common consent becomes more than acquiescence to the proposal of a leader, since democracy as a way of life implies a citizenry which comprehends the structure of social controls and which participates in their creation and operation. With double force this principle applies to an education which has as its basic purpose the reinforcement and improvement of American democracy. Thus, if it is true that public opinion is one of the factors operating to modify social configurations, then educators must be able to understand and appraise public opinion. Moreover, they must give enlightened leadership to the creation of an informed opinion in order that the progressive development of education may be rooted in popular support.

In the first chapter the author, using Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, as his case, interestingly shows how public opinion affects education—showing the devious methods used by groups in creating public opinion for or against a cause. The second chapter discusses the various research methods used in public opinion showing the reasons for the failure of the *Literary Digest* poll and the success of the Gallup and the Fortune Survey polls on the presidential campaign of 1936. Chapter III describes

the preparation for and the method of polling of the opinions of the Pittsburgh people regarding certain educational issues confronting them. The next chapter analyzes the interview data secured on these issues from 1464 schedules.

The author believes that the school administrators have a very definite responsibility not only in keeping the public informed, but in developing enlightened public opinion as well. In doing this the author states, "It is fundamentally important that educators recognize the diverse elements which make up public opinion. The educational leader who is also a student of opinion will be better able to deal with the persistent problem of maintaining public relations on a high professional plane. He must understand the patterns of action of pressure groups. He must realize that access to communication channels is a purchasable commodity. He must take account of the stresses between races, economic classes, nationalities, and social groupings."

STRANG, RUTH. *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1941. 361 pp. \$4.00. This volume is the first to assemble for widest possible use by teachers and personnel workers, as well as deans, counselors, directors of student activities and others, the best that literature and research offers on the origin, growth, and dynamics of the increasingly important extracurriculum group activities in the educational process. The author describes the nature of student groups, the knowledge, attitudes, and skills to which an adequate group program should contribute, and the ways and means of attaining desired educational results and by-products. She supplies needed clarification of the philosophy and psychology underlying group activities, summarizes attempts to evaluate them, and traces their beneficial effect on individual and community development. This book thus provides faculty members and school administrators responsible for sponsoring student activities with a new counseling tool they will find indispensable in initiating programs and procedures in their own schools.

SUMPTION, M. R. *Three Hundred Gifted Children*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: The World Book Company. 1941. 258 pp. \$2.40. This is a timely book, for as Dr. Goddard writes in the introduction: "We are in desperate need of leaders. A democracy will always need leaders. There are in the United States a million and a half children with sufficient intelligence to be educated for leadership. If every large school system should start at once to give its superior children an enriched and differentiated program, the sum total of the results might well alter the destiny of our people." In this book, the author presents a follow-up study of the results of the special education of superior pupils. His book represents extensive and thorough inquiry from various angles into the case histories of more than 300 gifted former pupils themselves. Some of these pupils are graduates of the special classes for the gifted; others, a control group, the product of regular school work. This book will be of interest to all administrators concerned with the problem of the gifted, and to all those who have followed with interest the enlightened procedure with superior pupils in our public schools which began experimentally some twenty years ago. The lesson from the Cleveland experiment should not be ignored, nor can it be ignored by those who read this evaluation.

PAMPHLETS AND WORKBOOKS:

Bibliography—Research Problems—Current Topics for Speakers. Bulletin No. 2. New York: National Citizens Committee, 122 East 22nd Street. February 1942. 10 for 40c; 50 for \$1.50; 100 for \$2. Based on the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Includes an annotated bibliography of publications concerning the 1940 White House Conference and current topics for speakers on the local application of the Conference recommendations. This bulletin should also be of value to those selecting problems for research.

Community Projects for Child Welfare. Bulletin No. 1. New York: National Citizens Committee, 122 East 22nd Street. January 1942. 10 for 40c; 50 for \$1.50; 100 for \$2. Based on the Recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Furnishes a working outline for two community projects especially adapted to the present national emergency: (1) A Guide for Setting Up a Directory of Agencies Concerned With the Welfare of Children and Youth; (2) Suggestions for Setting up a Community Speakers Bureau. The bulletin has been prepared for use by Civilian Defense Volunteers and other community organizations.

CURRICULUM BULLETINS. Mimeographed. Published by the Curriculum Laboratory of the University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. Hugh B. Wood, Director and Editor.

Williamson, S. E. *Interdependence in Plant and Animal Life.* No. 12. 26 pp. 30c. A high school science unit describing the actual development of the work in the classroom, and materials and activities that can be used.

Wilshire, E. M. *The Adventures of Puck.* No. 25. 50 pp. 60c. Contains many suggestions for all grade levels for teaching *A Midsummer Night's Dream* ballad.

Wilshire, E. M. *Brazil: The Land of Opportunity.* No. 27. 38 pp. 50c. A particularly timely unit on our neighbors of the South. Cutting across the traditional subject-matter lines, its flexibility will appeal to the teacher interested in helping pupils co-ordinate their educational experiences into worth-while learnings.

Wilshire, E. M. *Robinhood: An Appreciation Unit.* No. 26. 40 pp. 50c. Contains many suggestions for teaching the *Robin Hood* ballad.

Experiment by Schools, Radio, and Government. U. S. Dept. of Interior, Division of Information, Washington, D. C.—Government Printing Office. 1941. 80 pp. 20c. A story of the development of a new information technique, the radio. The story of the Central Valley Project of Reclamation was told in radio scripts. These were used by the schools in this area in an effort to inform the people of the community of the value of the project. How this was done and the value of this popular educational program engendering the active participation of at least 2000 pupils are discussed. A sample of one of the skeleton scripts is included.

HEIMERS, LILI AND BOOTH, E. M. *Visual and Teaching Aids for Health Education.* Upper Montclair, New Jersey: State Teachers College. Visual Aid Service. 1941. 16 pp. 25c mimeo. In addition to an annotated subject listing of free and inexpensive aids to teaching health, it contains a list of the names and addresses of fourteen organizations interested in health, twelve periodicals devoted to this subject, and eleven agencies from which general source materials can be secured.

JENKINS, F. C., DIR. *The Southern Association Study*, by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Nashville, Tenn.: The Commission. 1941. 68 pp. A report of the origin and nature of the work with the thirty-three co-op-

erating secondary schools from 1938 to 1941 in their attempt to develop an educational program which will more adequately meet the needs of their adolescent group. This is a description of how these schools modified their instructional programs with the view of providing desirable outcomes not then achieved by these schools. Schools are permitted to depart from traditional practices where desirable, and are given the assurance that their graduates will be admitted to certain higher institutions of learning without the usual restrictions.

- LABASTILLE, IRMA. *Canciones Tipicas*. New York: Silver Burdett Co. 1941. 48 pp. 72c. *Canciones Tipicas* contains an unusually beautiful and characteristic group of songs from Latin America, many of which have never previously been available in print in North America. To these have been added, in response to numerous requests for separate publication, the songs from "A Musical Travelogue Through Latin America" contained in *Music Highways and Byways*. The entire group offers a panorama of the musical art of our neighbors to the South. In addition to the English translations provided, the original Spanish, Portuguese, and dialect texts further disclose the character and flavor of a great civilization in the Southern Hemisphere. The piano accompaniments aim to reproduce as faithfully as possible the effects of the usual accompanying instruments, such as guitar, marimba, maracas, gourds, etc.

In those situations where it is desired to give a performance utilizing these songs in a dramatic sequence, the Publishers have issued a brief pamphlet, "Under the Southern Stars," a Latin American Fiesta, also by Irma Labastille. The pamphlet contains script, dialogue, and all staging, dancing, and costuming details. This fiesta, embodying authentic customs and historical episodes, presents a full-length program which will help to build closer ties of friendship and sympathetic understanding between the Americas.

- LUNDBERG, E. O. *Our Concern—Every Child*. Washington, D. C.: Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Limited Mimeographed Supply. 77 pp. Single copies available on request. A practical outline for a state or community self-survey of conditions affecting the well-being of children. Designed primarily for groups who wish to compare local conditions with the recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Also includes standards of child health, education, and social welfare. A valuable guide for checking services to children.

- N.Y.A. in *School Program*. Boston, Mass.: N.Y.A. for Massachusetts, Park Square Building. 1941. 32 pp. A report of the School-Work Advisory Board and the N.Y.A. to the Secondary-School Principal's Association of Massachusetts to serve as a guide manual to secondary-school principals of the state. Also contains a long list of work projects that pupils can do.

- NICHOLS, T. AND STILES, H. L. *Woodworking Workbook*. Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press. 1942. 62 pp. 68c. This workbook is intended to serve as a guide for a course in woodworking, containing many interesting and worth-while facts about wood, tools, and other materials. There are six sections, each covering part of the material a pupil should know. Each has information blanks to be filled in, questions to be answered, and illustrations to be labeled. Preliminary lessons treat background information every shop pupil needs. Section II covers wood, the material to be used, its source and preparation. The unit on tools and elementary demonstrations will make more effective the instructor's demonstrations and any text or reference text which is being used. The section on wood fasteners is vital to all wood construction. In the section on wood finishing, there is an im-

portant step-by-step chart on the three major finishes—shellac, varnish, and enamel. Part six will help the teacher guide the pupil in selecting proper projects.

Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Educational Conference and the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Lexington, Ky. Bureau of School Service. University of Kentucky. 1941. 235 pp. 50c. Addresses given by program speakers at this three-day conference.

Publications of the Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, Clark, J. M. *How to Check Inflation.* 1941. 31 pp. 10c. A warning that inflation is inevitable unless prompt and vigorous action is taken. Points out that the movement of prices since 1939 parallels closely that of the First World War. The author asserts that although "we know more about the mechanics of inflation than we did twenty-five years ago, we shall have to make better use of our knowledge than we have so far if we are to make a much better record." While he contends that the job of curbing inflation rests primarily with the government, he also suggests how the housewife, the worker, and the employer can help. It is not a "Let John do it" proposition.

Moffett, C. W. *More for Your Money.* 1942. 31 pp. 10c. "We could increase the purchasing power of our incomes by 25 per cent or more if the buying methods of individuals were as well developed as our methods of production and distribution," declares the author of this pamphlet. Individual consumers are given the following suggestions for using and promoting standards: (1) Bear in mind that you have a right to specific and complete information about anything you buy, (2) Look for labels and advertisements that give all the facts you need to make an intelligent choice, (3) If all the important facts are not given in advertising or on labels, ask questions of the salesperson or the buyer, (4) Study available national standards, either as individuals or in group programs, and ask your local retailers to provide merchandise that is labeled informatively, and (5) Cooperate with organizations and agencies that are promoting the development and use of national standards.

The following additional booklets have been published during 1941. They have 32 pages each and sell for 10 cents each.

Better Nursing for America. Amidon, Beulah. Points out possible ways to improve the nursing situation as well as present figures.

Installment Selling—Pros and Cons. An excellent analysis of the whole problem.

Weekday Classes in Religious Education. Bulletin No. 3. 1941. 66 pp. 10 cents. What is being done in the way of releasing public school pupils from school for religious education.

Working Your Way Through College, and Other Means of Providing for College Expenses. Vocational Division Bulletin. 1941. 175 pp. 20 cents.

Publications of the Science Research Associates, 1700 Prairie Ave., Chicago., Backer R. and Berkowitz, G. J. *School Subjects and Related Careers—A Vocational Survey Plan:* 1941. 96 pp. 90c. Covers eleven main subjects in school curriculum and shows the specific occupations to which an interest and ability in each subject lead. Each teacher in a school should be urged to read carefully the section on the subject she teaches. It shows how pupils in a particular subject may qualify for specific occupations and careers. For example, a knowledge of, and ability in algebra is essential in at least forty occupations! If pupils realized this they would look at algebra and other school subjects in a much more serious light

than at present. It contains 18 teaching units for the study of occupations, either as a separate course or as units in social studies, English, or civics classes. Group study of occupations is growing rapidly because it helps to prepare pupils for difficult job problems today as well as for those they will surely face after the defense program is over. Here is an organized plan for group occupational study on an individual basis in which each pupil studies the occupations where his interests and abilities lie.

Schroeder, J. J. *A Job in Banking*. 1941. 50c. Discusses a career in banking. Gives the facts in an interesting way whereupon the pupil can gain some idea if his interests and abilities are suitable to this kind of work.

Traxler, A. E. *The Nature and Use of Reading Tests*. 1941. 64 pp. 90c. This study represents an attempt to carry out the recommendations of the Subcommittee on Reading Tests of the Committee on Tests and Measurements of the Educational Records Bureau. The second section reviews reading tests for the elementary school, high school, and college levels. In the third section, the use of reading tests in diagnosis and corrective instruction is discussed and illustrated. Section Four indicates the relationship between scores on certain reading tests and mental ages on the Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Test. The fifth section contains an annotated list of reading materials for all levels from the primary grades to college. The bulletin as a whole is designed to serve as a working manual rather than as a booklet to be read "from cover to cover."

Ufford, C. W. *Occupations in Rubber*. 1942. 48 pp. 50c. This is the 26th pamphlet of this organization's "American Job Series." A fascinating story of an industry interestingly told.

SEAY, M. F. AND MEECE, L. E. *Introducing Housing into School Curricula*. Lexington, Ky. Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky. 1941. 92 pp. 50c. Report of a work-conference of teachers attending summer school who developed plans for a housing unit of instruction applicable to both elementary and secondary-school use. The follow-up program is also reported.

STEWART, E. I. *Attention! To Your Health*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1941. 82 pp. This is the second of three pamphlets that have been prepared to assist young men in anticipation of selection into our nation's military service. The first of the pamphlets—*Is Your Number Up?*—is aimed to assist young men in making home and community preparation for entrance into selective service. This second pamphlet introduces the selectee into all phases of health problems to which he should direct his attention. It attempts to present, in easily understandable form, the more common facts about health as they apply to life in the Army.

ULMER, GILBERT, *Some Suggestions for Teaching Geometry to Develop Clear Thinking*. Lawrence, Kansas. University of Kansas Publications, 121 Frank Strong Hall. 1942. 22 pp. Gratis. Source materials and suggestions for teaching secondary-school geometry to develop an understanding of principles of clear thinking.

WHEELING, K. E. AND HILSON, J. A. *Audio-Visual Materials for Junior and Senior High School Reading*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. 1941. 98 pp. \$1.25. An excellent list of books, magazines, pictures, film strips, motion pictures, and phonograph records of more than 100 writers and other noted people. Also contains a list of publishers, together with their addresses, as well as a complete index of materials and people and places to which the materials apply. Certainly an extraordinary aid to the teacher, as well as to the school.

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

Calendar

March

- 6-7 North Texas State Teachers and Secondary-School Principals Association Convention, Dallas, Texas. Theme: *Educating for Richer Ways of Living*.
- 13-14 The Eighteenth Annual Junior-High-School Conference of The School of Education, New York University at the University.
- 16-21 National Hobby Week.
- 20-21 Annual meeting of the Department of Superintendents and Principals, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- 25-29 Annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Chicago, Ill.
- 28-April 2 Annual National Conference of Music Educators, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

April

- 8-10 Annual meeting of the Inland Empire Education Association, Spokane, Washington.
- 9-11 Annual state meeting of the All-Principals Conference, Tampa, Florida.
- 10 Annual meeting of the Tennessee Secondary-School Principals Association, Nashville.
- 14 Pan-American Day. Write to the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C. for aids and suggestions for this days observance.
- 14 Annual meeting of the Idaho Secondary-School Principals Association, Boise.
- 14-16 Annual meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Chicago, Ill. Headquarters: Drake Hotel.
- 15-18 Annual convention of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in joint session with the Southern District Association, New Orleans, La., Headquarters, Hotel Roosevelt.
- 24-25 Spring meeting of the Ohio Secondary-School Principals Association, Columbus, Headquarters: Seneca Hotel.

May

- 1-2 Annual meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. Headquarters: Mayflower Hotel.
- 2-9 Eighth annual meeting of the Pan-American Child Congress, Washington, D.C.
- 4-6 Annual meeting of the Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio.
- 17 CITIZENSHIP RECOGNITION DAY.

June

- 21-25 Annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Boston, Mass.
- 22-27 Sixty-fourth annual Conference of the American Library Association, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
- 26-27 The Ninth Annual Conference on Business Education, University of Chicago.

28-July 2

- Summer Convention of the National Education Association, Denver, Colorado.

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Winter Stillness

I was standing alone on the hillside
The black trees around me rose,
While the moon and the branches above me
Cast a pattern beneath on the snow.

A branch snapped somewhere below me
Then all was so cold and still,
That eternity seemed just that moment
And the whole world seemed that hill.

And the world was waiting for something--
Maybe new life and rebirth,
Or maybe the next million years
To add to the age of the earth.

Edna Jane Hyatt
Lehman High School
Canton, Ohio